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Fall 1987. Volume 37, No. 4

Revue canadienne d'économie familiale

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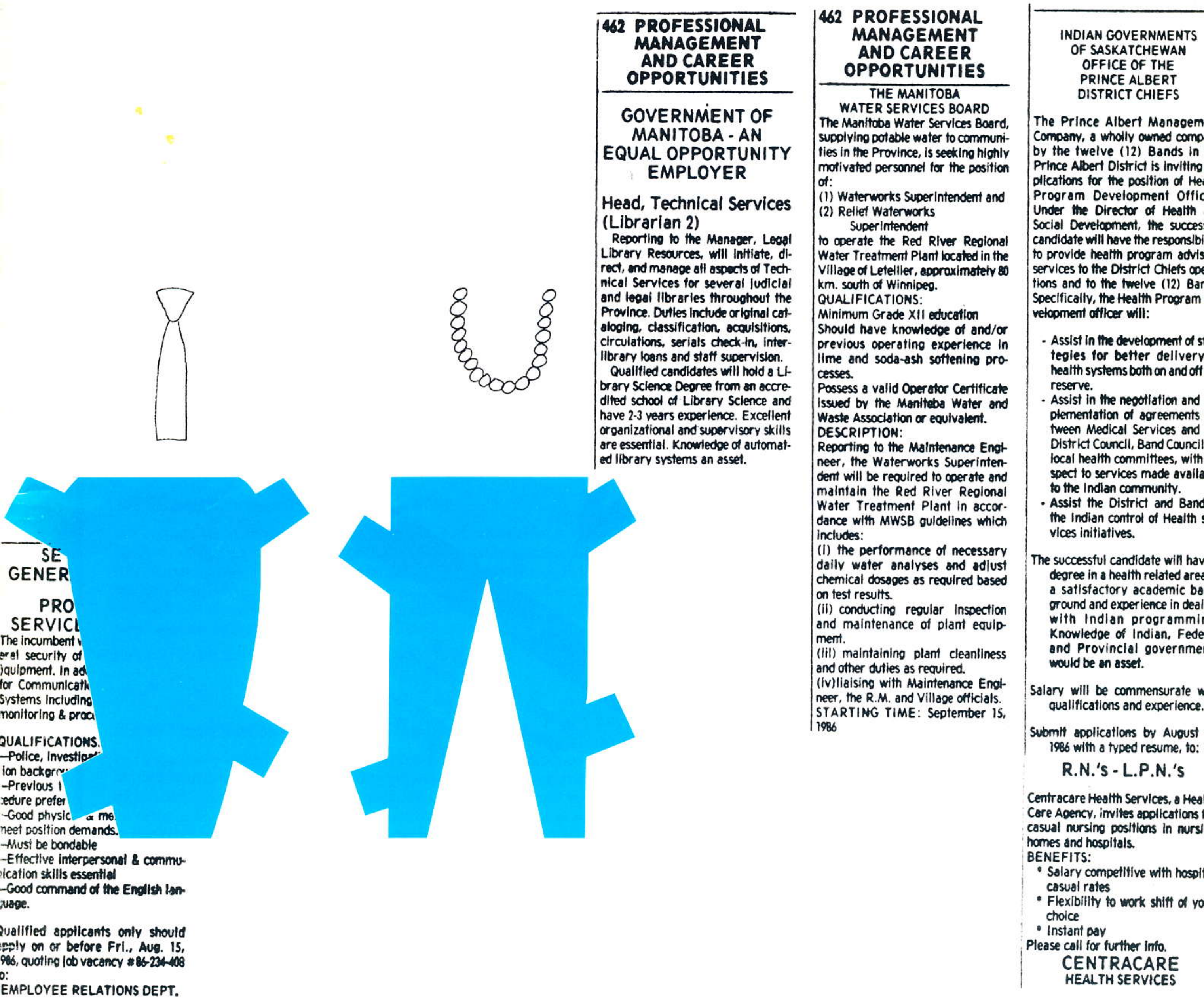

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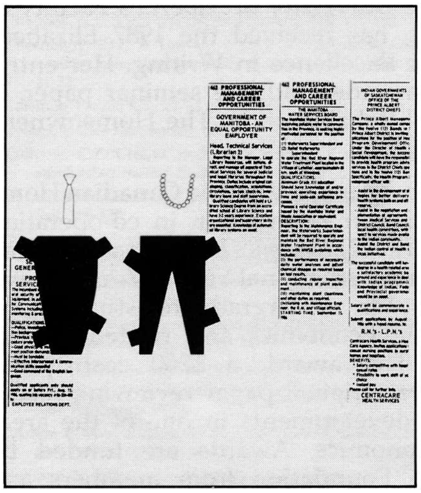
Canadian Home Economics Journal

Revue canadienne d'économie familiale

Fall 1987

Volume 37 No. 4



The cover, designed by Heather Kowalchuk, symbolizes the potential conflict and power of the diverse roles in today's society. (Designed as a project in the 4th year graphic design class, School of Art, University of Manitoba, under the direction of Professor Norman Schmidt.)

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The Elizabeth Feniak Award for Excellence in Writing

For the third year, the Canadian Home Economics Association Foundation, in co-operation with the *Canadian Home Economics Journal (CHEJ)*, is sponsoring a writing competition for senior undergraduate students from faculties of home economics, family and consumer studies, human ecology, foods and nutrition, and related courses.

Entry Content

An original paper, maximum 2,000 words, reviewing recent research or new developments in one of the areas within home economics, may be entered. The paper may be an adaptation of a seminar report or term paper, and must follow the *CHEJ* "Guide for Authors". Papers may be submitted in English or French.

Prizes

First prize	$200
Second prize	$100

All prizes may not be awarded if quantity and/or quality of entries does not warrant. The *Canadian Home Economics Journal* may, at the discretion of the editors, publish the winning paper(s).

Submission Deadline

Entries must be received by the Writing Competition co-ordinator, M. Wallace, no later than February 29, 1988.

Further Information

Obtain complete details regarding the competition from offices of Deans/Directors/Chairpersons of Faculties/Departments of Home Economics/Home Economics Education and related courses, or from the CHEA Foundation, c/o Margaret B.C. Wallace, 8-2156 Sherbrooke St. West, Montreal, PQ H3H 1G7.

Writing Competition Winner Announced

Jean L. (Masson) Ashdown, Edmonton, AB, a 1987 graduate from the University of Alberta's Faculty of Home Economics, has received the 1987 Elizabeth Feniak Award for Excellence in Writing. Her entry, prepared from an undergraduate seminar paper, is titled "Residential Rehabilitation: The Homeowner's Decision."

The competition, sponsored by the Canadian Home Economics Association Foundation in co-operation with the *Canadian Home Economics Journal*, was initiated in 1985 to mark the International Year of Youth. It was open to fourth-year undergraduate students in Faculties of Home Economics and related studies across Canada. The award, a $200 cash prize, recognizes the best original paper reviewing recent research or new developments in one of the areas within home economics. Awards are funded by donations to the Foundation from members and friends of the Association.

The competition was designed to encourage and exhibit some of the best writing from students about to enter the profession of home economics, and to stimulate the interest of undergraduate students in their professional journal and in writing for publication.

Entries for this year's competition were received from students at the University of Alberta, Edmonton; Macdonald College of McGill University, Ste-Anne-de Bellevue, PQ; Mount St. Vincent University, Halifax, NS; Ryerson Polytechnical Institute, Toronto; and the University of Windsor, Windsor, ON.

Ashdown, a native of Red Deer, AB, entered the Faculty of Home Economics at the University of Alberta in 1985. She had earlier obtained a Bachelor of Science degree in Medical Laboratory Science in 1980 and worked at the University of Alberta Hospital Blood Bank and at the Canadian Red Cross Blood Transfusion Service. Her interests in the conservation and restoration of historic buildings led her to prepare the paper for her course and, subsequently, for entry to the competiton. She graduated with distinction on June 4, 1987.

from the Editors

The final issue of Volume 37 of the *CHEJ* focusses on conflict and power. In the lead article, Vaines presents a broad view of power and conflict as they relate to the reality of today's world, and indicates that the home economics profession "has an obligation to use their power to address systemic reform through language and institutional and political transformation". Kingsbury discusses the conflict between work and family in dual-earner families, and offers predictions of future trends for a variety of work/family types. Walker and Walker review recent research on farm stress and show how farm stress is related to lack of power.

In the Research Section, Vaines and Arcus report on their research on the influences on the decision to major in home economics. Their findings provide insight into the nature of these influences on occupational choice, and have practical implications for recruitment and for professional education in home economics.

Also in this issue, the winner of the Elizabeth Feniak Award for Excellence in Writing, the competition for senior undergraduate students, is announced; and the advertisement for the 1988 competition appears.

The tenure of the present editors (except for the Research Editor) is now complete. The emotions associated with our term have been many: *pride* in the journal we have produced; *gratitude* to the authors and others who made the publication of the journal possible; *apprehension* about the responsibility we had; and *annoyance* at promised manuscripts never appearing and submission deadlines being ignored. We are relieved that we had sufficient numbers of accepted manuscripts in hand to assure completion of our responsibilities to the readership. The shortage of both numbers and quality of manuscripts has caused concern throughout our term; fortunately this trend now appears to be reversing. We wish the in-coming editorial committee every success as they assume responsibility for the *CHEJ*. ☐

Barbara Baczynsky
Ruth Berry
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NEXT ISSUE

Computers in Home Economics

Reader Forum

Letters and comments from the readership

The Canadian Home Economics Journal encourages comment, up to 300 words, on recent content in our pages or on matters of general interest to the Home Economics profession. Letters are subject to editing.

Editor-Elect

We are pleased to commend to you the editor-elect for the *CHEJ*, Nancy Scrutton of Amherstburg, Ontario. Nancy will be known to many of our readers as an author and contributor to our journal. Over the past 9 months we have worked closely together to assure a smooth and co-operative transition of responsibilities. We are confident that your journal is passing into hands that will sustain it, handle it with care, and mold its potential for greater service to the field.

Editorial Committee, CHEJ

Editorial Office Change of Address

Readers and authors (general interest section and Reader Forum) are advised to note the new editorial office address as it appears on the masthead page of this issue of the *CHEJ*. For the Research Section of the *CHEJ* there has been no change.

WANTED: Software Reviewers

Readers who are familiar with, or who are currently using computer software related to any area of home economics, are invited to contact the CHEJ Editorial Office.

Commencing in 1988 Software Reviews will be a regular feature of the *Canadian Home Economics Journal.*

Nancy Scrutton, Editor-Elect

CHEA Conference 1988

The 1988 CHEA Conference will be held in Guelph from July 10-13 and the theme is: "TOWARDS 2000: Challenges and Opportunities".

We look forward to planning and implementating the 1988 Conference and to providing a quality experience for the delegates who attend.

Shirley Ann Holmes
Rosemary Clark

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Subscriptions, membership fees and change of address should be mailed to the CHEA National Office, 901-151 Slater St., Ottawa K1P 5H3, Canada.

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Contents are indexed in the *Canadian Periodical Index* and selectively indexed in *Public Affairs Information Service (PAIS), Canadian Education Index, Nutrition Abstracts and Reviews, Inventory of Marriage* and *Family Literature, Bibliographic Index of Health Education Periodicals, Current Index to Journals in Education*, and *World Textile Abstracts.* Microfilm and Xerographic copies are available from Micromedia Limited, 158 Pearl Street, Toronto, Canada M5H 1L3 and University Microfilms International, 300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106.

Contributors will find *Journal* themes and submission deadline dates in the Summer 1987 issue and the Guide for Authors in the Winter 1987 issue, pages 52-53.

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L'Association d'économie familiale est l'organisme professionnel national regroupant les personnes qui travaillent ou sont diplômées en études de la famille ou du consommateur, en alimentation, nutrition, économie familiale et écologie humaine. La mission de l'association est de renforcer la profession et de promouvoir une plus grande qualité de la vie pour les particuliers et les familles.

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Nos articles sont répertoriés dans l'*Index des périodiques canadiens*, et sélectivement, dans *Public Affairs Information Service* (PAIS), le *Répertoire canadien sur l'éducation, Nutrition Abstracts and Reviews, Inventory of Marriage and Family Literature, Bibliographic Index of Health Education Periodicals, Current Index to Journals in Education* et *World Textile Abstracts.* Pour en obtenir des copies dactylographiées ou sur microfilm, s'adresser à Micromedia Limited, 158, rue Pearl, Toronto, Canada M5H 1L3, ou à University Microfilms International, 300 N. Zeeb Road, Ann Arbor, MI 48106.

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Power and Conflict

An Alternate View for Home Economists

Eleanore Vaines

There are those who believe that the global community has been impoverished, even brutalized, by a narrow comprehension of power. In this article power and conflict are explored more broadly to seek an understanding of what might be possible for the common good if power was viewed according to the reality of today's world (Raskin, 1986). Professionals have an obligation to understand this new perception of reality as an integral part of their practice.

Abstract

The purpose of this article is to explore power and conflict broadly. Since home economists focus on families and their daily needs in socially responsible ways, an understanding of power and conflict is necessary to provide services which can be justified pragmatically, intellectually, and morally. Alternate views of our present notions of power and conflict can be a means of transforming our perception of reality, and of leading us to community-based actions, grounded in an eco-centered vision of the 21st century.

Résumé

Cet article veut explorer en profondeur le principe des pouvoirs et des conflits. Comme les conseillers en économie familiale s'occupent des familles et de leurs besoins quotidiens d'une manière responsable du point de vue social, il est nécessaire de comprendre ce principe des pouvoirs et des conflits pour fournir des services qui puissent se justifier sur les plans pragmatique, intellectuel et moral. De nouvelles conceptions de nos notions actuelles des pouvoirs et des conflits peuvent se révéler un moyen de transformer notre perception de la réalité, et de nous conduire à des actions axées sur la collectivité et enracinées dans une vision éco-centrique du 21^{e} siècle.

The Reality of Today's World

Physicist Fritjof Capra (1983) suggests that the global systems are at a turning point. His premise is based on data which implies that humans, particularly those in powerful positions, have given us to a crisis because of the ways in which they view reality. If the world and its people are perceived as machines, then they can be manipulated by controlling the appropriate systems for the greatest benefit to a few. Eight percent of the world's population, for example, consumes 60% of its resources.

This approach tends to justify using any means to accomplish an end and has lead to what Capra refers to as a "crisis of perception" (Capra, 1983, p. 15). His view is that all other issues such as hunger, inflation, pollution, unemployment, and crime are examples of different facets of this crisis. As a result, a vision of the nature of reality as it really exists is required to bring about the necessary fundamental systemic changes (Morris, 1987). The first stage of this new vision requires us to understand and embrace new paradigms or maps which will transform our thinking, perceptions, and values (Cohen, 1985).

A basic assumption of this alternate view is that the paradigms and metaphors by which we live, shape our actions. The shift proposed is from a mechanistic world view to an orientation which recognizes that everything is related to everything else in some way. If humans manipulate the environment incorrectly then there are consequences which all organisms will have to address. The focus of action embedded in the new orientation will move us from economic determinants to survival criteria.

A paradigm shift is a transformation about what is important and why it is essential for survival of planet Earth and its inhabitants. Persuant actions chosen will be congruent with a balance which integrates organisms and environment. This ecological orientation represents a different way of thinking and living in harmony and thus a new way of seeing and living power relationships.

Power and conflict grounded in the findings of modern physics conceive that all systems which make up planet Earth are interdependent with a complex "harmony" played out over time (Morris, 1987). Power and conflict are seen as ways of contributing to dynamic balance. This view is manifest in a different kind of social and economic structure. The gravity and global extent of the current crisis we are living indicates that such a change in the way we see ourselves in relation to our world requires a transformation in our ways of viewing reality.

Understood in this context, power and conflict come to mean ways of achieving critical transformation and represent a broader interpretation. Of course, this approach also has its dangers, for in seeking to achieve a more eco-centered way of life, the means used can cause hardship and suffering. The dilemma is and will continue to be, what is in the interest of the common good and how can this be achieved both ethically and with expedience (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987)?

Organisms of all kinds and at every level of the ecosystem are changing. Seeking survival along with harmony of the whole, leads us to probe deeper into specific ways in which this kind of power and conflict can be developed. Through these means professionals

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Eleanore Vaines, PhD, is on the Faculty of the School of Family and Nutritional Sciences at the University of British Columbia. The author's degrees were earned at the University of Washington, Cornell, and Michigan State.

An ecological orientation represents a new way of seeing and living power relationships.

can better contribute to transformation over time which enable people to participate in a world turned upside down (Yankelovich, 1981).

Home Economists and Power

A recent volume based on in-depth interviews with over 200 Americans, sought to illuminate the core of the culture which moves people in their daily life (Bellah, Madsen, Swidler, Sullivan, & Tipton, 1985). *Habits of the Heart* unearths radical individualism as the central driving principle of the culture. As a result, they found a people hindered by their world view and its language. The interviewees' expressions reflected a lack of concern for commitment and community which were in conflict with the preservation of their egocentric needs for success. These and other results, led the researchers to explore the personal and political limitations imposed by such a predominant orientation. Included in their study are three types of actions which are suggested as ways of addressing this imbalance: language and institutional and political reform. Although culture, in general, does not lend itself to conscious direction or procedures, individuals and groups embedded in communities can make a difference.

The professional is empowered to chose actions.

Home economics is one kind of community bound together through a common commitment. The field has a history of being a profession concerned with reform.

> Home Economics has always aimed to improve daily life for families and individuals. Explicit examples of the field's preoccupation with reformism appear in conference proceedings, textbooks, association publications and speeches. (Vincente, 1983, p. 26)

Brown (1984) traces the unfolding of this goal pursued in two seemingly conflicting approaches. One portrays people and the home in mechanistic terms. The person is egocentered, the world works like a machine and people are objects to be made efficient and effective. The self is presented as a source of power where competition is a prime motivator and the world is made up of "winners" and "losers". The home is described in physical terms and is to be managed scientifically. Society is to be controlled and conformed to in order to make a "good" society. The professional is an expert who tells others how to achieve the "good" life (Brown, 1984, p. 50).

The other world view, present but less predominant, sees persons as eco-centered, interdependent, and embedded in a community context. Their power is through co-operation in community and sharing each person's gifts. The home is viewed as a "moral center" where persons develop values and an understanding of responsibility along with modes of participation which, in turn, help shape society. Persons see themselves as part of a whole; in process, thus in reciprocal relationship with others and the environment. Every person is considered a "winner" in some way. The meaning of life comes through participating in bringing about a society which considers the interests of all global citizens (Brown, 1984, p. 50). The professional is a participant empowered to chose actions which enable people to co-operate together to reach a moral end.

As we are in the midst of living these world views it is difficult to comprehend the metaphors by which we live. The long-term consequences of living according to certain patterns are notions of power which we take for granted. If a person perceives the world as a place to use and society as a body to which one must conform, power is exercised as a commodity. Such notions permeate our language, institutions and political system.

If a person, on the other hand, perceives the world as their "home" and society as a group in which one must participate in order to shape a more just social order, then power becomes a means of bringing about meaning, dignity and harmony with other global citizens. Conflict is translated as dialectics which lead to evolving a world for the common good.

To gain a perspective on these conceptions of power, the means of reform suggested by Bellah et al. (1985) will briefly be explored. If we can perceive professional practice as grounded in eco-centered paradigms of power, what will this mean?

Reforming a "Crisis of Perception"

Language, in the form of speech and our ability to listen, is the essence of being human. It is an integral part of our capacity to make connections between and among each other and the world in which we live. Language is the basis of thought patterns and thus a form of power. It is a potent means whereby we are shaped and, in turn, shape the world. Being citizens of a democratic political system means we can exert our power through our language, institutions, and political system. In other words, we have access to power and freedom of expression on many different levels as a result.

Philip H. Abelson (1987) provides an example of this intimate interrelationship and why we must comprehend this if reform is to be addressed. In his recent editorial in *Science* he outlines some of the concerns of thoughtful people about the problems facing the United States today. He then notes that in a recent poll it was found that television programs are exposed an average of 7.5 hours per day in American households. Stories related on this media tend to emphasize crisis which catch the attention of viewers and shape opinions. Since TV programs are limited by designated time slots, complex issues are simplified and at the same time important ongoing issues which seem less exciting and are uncomfortable for viewers, are neglected; but many of these are the ones which affect national policy. The pressure of the electorate, however, comes to legislators as "tidal waves" generated by the media (p. 265). Pervasive long-term issues go unattended for elected representatives must be reelected. Popular sentiment where people lead their leaders through media manipulation turns out to be a distortion of what democratic participation means.

Thus Abelson's editorial is important for several reasons. Conforming to a television version of the world means we exert power on our institutions and political systems as unrelated parts of interdependent systems. Further, when we submit uncritically to the power of the media, we detract our energies from systemic issues which should command our attention. We come to live an illusion where we think our society is making "progress" towards a more just society, where we believe that we are truly participating in making that happen but, in fact, we are helping to create greater problems through neglect of the larger and long-term concerns for the future of planet Earth.

It is important for the more affluent nations to realize anew some of the issues which must be confronted. For home economists it means we must understand better the culture in which we live. Disruptive family trends, for example, are more extreme in North America than in other industrialized nations. Divorce rates in the United States, for example, are the highest in the world; their rate of teenage births is not only the highest on record but it is no longer being effectively reduced (Bronfenbrenner, 1986, p. 26). Canada and the United States are the only technically advanced society that have allowed one-fourth of their youngest children, from newborn to 5 years old, to live in poverty and to suffer the long-term consequences of that experience (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

Categorizing people as powerful or impotent is a way of thinking in which we can no longer indulge, because only inclusiveness will lead us to survival thinking. Are the poor really lazy, undeserving, unworthy? In a special to the *Toronto Globe and Mail*, Judy Steed (1986) outlined how the middle class is losing ground. The rich are getting richer and the poor are more numerous. There are a number of ways to determine distribution of wealth. Data from the 1984 Statistics Canada Survey of Consumer Finance, which measures the assets and liabilities of families and unattached individuals, found that 20% of the Canadian popultion presently holds 44.8% of the national wealth (Statistics Canada, 1986). Mike Ornstein, a sociologist at York University, is quoted in Steed's article as follows:

> ... the bottom 20% of Canada's population earns a mere 3.6% of all income, while the top 20% take 43.3%. In all, 27% of Canadian families earn less than $20,000/year and, in Toronto, families living below he poverty line increased 6% last year alone. (cited in Steed, 1986, p. D5)

Statistical indicators worldwide imply that the middle class in affluent countries is losing ground, and those below the poverty line are growing in numbers.

> The message is basic: that while countries may achieve some reforms within their borders ... it will take international cooperation and national restraint to make any real progress . . . it is . . . folly (of) trying to divorce the health of the planet's resources from the use we make of them. (This abused planet, 1987, p. A6)

Thus it is essential we explore a redirection of power and conflict based on a broader view of the reality of today's world.

Summary and Implications

Power and conflict are basic and complex parts of the global order (World Commission on Environment and Development, 1987). This article has introduced home economists to some of the areas related to conceptualizing and addressing power and conflict as professionals. It is suggested that only through redefining the nature of reality can we hope to effect actions which will bring meaningful change. A "crisis of perception" thus has important implications for the field whose reasons for existence rest on providing meaningful services to people in socially responsible ways. Our mission implies it is not enough to treat symptoms but the profession also has an obligation to use their power to address systemic reform through language and institutional and political transformation.

Hannah Arendt (1958) noted in her classic lectures on *The Human Condition* that the essence of all revolutions is the start of a new story in human experience. If home economists chose to participate, it will mean we must commit ourselves as individuals and as a community to study in depth, reflect on what is and what should be, then implement in sound and imaginative ways, services which can lead to a new reality.

It is in these ways that we can continue to exert power and negotiate conflict to effect moral ends. We also learn with our receivers new paradigm and metaphors compatible with survival of planet Earth. What the community of home economists believes, studies, and does then becomes integrated with what was, is and should be for all human kind. ☐

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Dual-Earner Families

Conflict between work and family

Nancy M. Kingsbury

Abstract

Implications of the dual-earner lifestyle as compared with other work/family types are presented. Issues discussed are decision making/power, work schedules/time, division of household labor, fertility, marital satisfaction, mobility, and financial management. Ten work/family types are presented with predictions of future trends of each type. The greatest amount of change in family and work has occurred for women: Choosing to limit family size is becoming more of an option for women than choosing whether to become employed or not. Men are still the preferred "provider" of the family, consequently full recognition of the dual-earner lifestyle has lagged behind its existence. Suggestions are given for ways professionals can better recognize the characteristics and needs of the dual-earner family, especially the economic contributions of women.

Résumé

Des implications du train de vie des familles à deux gagnants sont comparées avec des familles à d'autres types de sources de revenu. On discute la prise des décisions vis-à-vis la puissance relative des deux sexes, l'emploi du temps/le temps disponible, le partage des corvées ménagères, la fertilité, la satisfaction conjugale, la mobilité, et la gérance financière. Dix types de famille (vis-à-vis le travail) sont présentés avec des prédictions des tendances de changement pour chaque type. On constate le plus grand changement chez la femme et dans la famille et au travail : elle opte plus à limiter le nombre d'enfants qu'à décider si elle va travailler on non. On préfère toujours que l'homme soit le pourvoyeur de la famille. Par conséquant la pleine reconnaissance du train de vie de la famille à deux gagnants reste en rétrograde après son existence même. On donne des suggestions à l'usage des professionaux pour pouvoir mieux reconnaître les caractéristiques et les besoins de la famille à deux gagnants, et surtout les contributions de la femme.

Prior to the 1970s, politicians, advertisers, marketers, and churches based their policies on the nuclear family as the "backbone" of North America (Bird, 1979). By the mid '70s less than 10% of families fit the traditional model of breadwinning father, homemaking mother, and two children. According to Bird, the major impetus for change was the exodus of women from the home into the labor force. What caused the exodus? Two of the most recognized reasons have been the women's movement and the rising divorce rates. In addition, inflation in the mid '70s created an economic need and an increase in low-paid service jobs that paved the way for women's employment. Historically, women saved the economy of the '70s. In contrast to what happened in the depression years, about one-half of the unemployed men in the '70s had employed wives who saved their credit and kept prices from falling in spite of high unemployment. "Women did more than maintain standards. Working wives lifted millions of families into middle-class life" (Bird, 1979, p.9).

Many at home tasks have become a source of outside employment for women (Levitan & Belous, 1981). With 60% of North American women in the labor force, predictions are that the percentages of working women will increase from the current 60%, to 90% in the 1990s (Friedan, 1981). Many of these jobs will be of the service type — food, health, social, financial service industries — but there will also be increases in the number of professional and political positions.

Research has consistently shown that the primary reason women work is economic need. Overall, women have contributed about 25% of total family incomes (Hayghe, 1982), but these figures are expected to increase as women become more attached (full-time year round) to the labor force (Smith & Reid, 1986). One of the reasons women's contributions are lower is because women earn about 66% of what males earn. The combined incomes from salaries and investments are higher in dual-earner families than in traditional single-earner families (Hayghe, 1981). Even though women are often part-time workers, the majority of dual-earner families work full-time. Hayghe pointed out several other characteristics of dual-earner families in comparison to single-earner families: dual-earner couples are an average of 7 years younger; dual-earners have more education; dual-earners have 20% higher incomes; and dual-earner husbands make less than traditional-earner husbands.

Impact of the Dual-Earner Choice

Decision making/power. The issue of power has been seen as critically important to married couples' roles, satisfaction, and stability (Gray-Little, 1982). Power is defined as the ability to affect change in another or resist change in oneself (Zartman, 1976). Therefore, the marital partner who gains his or her position most often in decision making is considered to have more power. Traditionally, husbands have had more power than wives, but early speculations were that as more women entered the labor force, power would become more equal (Blood & Wolfe, 1960).

As it turns out, the issue is not that simple. Working wives do have more power than non-working wives, but it is not their advantages in resources such as education, occupational status,

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and income alone that account for their increased power. Research evidence indicates that it is the attitudes couples hold towards male and female roles that influences power relations (Kingsbury, 1983). For example, women who believe that household tasks, child care, and financial support roles should be shared by husband and wife are more likely to have more input in decision making than wives who believe in a more traditional division of roles.

Apparently the preferred power structure of men, women, and children is the male dominant pattern (Hornung & McCullough, 1981). Life and marital satisfaction is higher in couples where husband/wife power is equal or the husband is dominant. When the wife's occupation is seen as more important than the husband's, friends, relatives, neighbors, and co-workers often give negative reactions, because they perceive this pattern as deviant (Atkinson & Bales, 1984). The wife's superior position, in terms of occupational status, is overlooked so that the family's general status is still a function only of the husband's occupational status (Richardson & Mahoney, 1981).

The attitudes that couples hold towards male and female roles influence power relations.

Work schedules/time. Men and women in high-powered careers work longer than the standard 40 hour work week. Men and women do not differ on number of hours worked when no children are present in the home. The presence of children reduces the number of hours wives work (Meeker, 1983; Yogev, 1981) but has little impact on wife's work-family conflict. In one study men identified work time as their major problem related to family-work issues, and women more often pointed to schedule conflicts and fatigue as major problems (Pleck, Staines, & Lang, 1980).

Division of household labor. One issue that has received much attention by researchers and the popular press is division of household tasks in dual-earner households. Contrary to a popular myth that dual-earner couples have plenty of money to buy the needed services to lighten their home workloads, the majority do not have the financial resources to buy these costly and difficult to find and/or manage services (Benenson, 1984). A pioneering study in this area was done in Vancouver by Meissner, Humphrey, Meiss, and Scheu (1975). Concomitant with most household time/labor studies of the '70s, these researchers found that when wives joined the labor force, husband's workloads (total hours spent in employment and housework) remained constant while wives' workloads increased. The evidence is now in for the past 12 years. Most men still do not do housework, not even when their wives work and not even when they think they should.

Joseph Pleck's (1985) book, *Working Wives/Working Husbands*, is an excellent reference on division of household labor. Pleck claimed that although men are not spending more time in household tasks, they are responding to wife's employment by spending more time playing with and nurturing children. Working wives are overloaded in terms of time and effort, but they spend more available time with children and less in housework than was true earlier on. Yet, the majority of wives continue to say that they do not want their husbands to do more housework. They are more likely to say they want help with the children. At first glance, this seems surprising until one remembers that cultural attitudes are slow to change. For example, '50s husbands did not want their wives to work, even when their own incomes were not sufficient, because the cultural norm was that husbands provide for their families. Other reasons women do not demand more equal division of household labor are: women are reluctant to give up the power they hold in the domestic domain; women believe men are incompetent (often termed "learned helplessness") in household tasks; and women do not agree with men's standards. What bothers wives most is not how much housework they do but how little their husbands do.

Apparently, time spent with children has a positive effect on men's mental health, but housework has a negative effect. This negative effect may be due to Rapoport and Rapoport's (1975) idea of "identity tension line", which describes how far individuals can go towards changing roles before reaching the point of discomfort so that self-esteem becomes affected. Pleck's (1985) conclusion was that men, women, and society as a whole must honestly face these conflicts between work and family.

Fertility patterns. One way to reduce household tasks is to reduce the number of people in the household. This reduction can be carried out best by a decrease in the number of children born or choosing to have no children. It has been found that husbands or employed and non-employed wives are happiest when no children are present (whether prior to birth or after children leave home) (Wilkie, 1981), whereas women's life satisfaction is not related to presence of children (Benin & Nienstedt, 1985).

The couples today most likely to have small families (one or at most two children) or no children are dual-earner couples. Owing to the role overload of working wives, more of these women are opting out of having children. It is not always because they do not like or want children, or not even because they cannot imagine themselves as mothers. It is often the case that they realize the heavy demands of career, and marriage without children can only increase when children arrive. Therefore, what these women cannot come to terms with is how a child can fit into this lifestyle, especially when most wives are aware that husbands are not likely to contribute a great deal to the required tasks.

The result is that fertility rates in many developed countries have dropped to alarmingly low percentages. After the push in the '60s and '70s to curtail overpopulation and the advent of birth control that made that goal possible, some demographers fear we have gone too far. Indeed, sparsely populated countries such as Canada can ill afford a decrease in population, and the controversial solution of increased immigration has its own set of costly problems. Others are concerned about future problems with elderly who will have no family to care for them. Despite alternate forms of care, family helpers, many of whom are children, still provide the majority of care for the elderly (Brody, 1985). It has been found that not having family is a predictor of institutionalization of the elderly (Giele, 1984; Johnson, 1983).

Another concern is for balanced socio-economic stratification for parents and non-parents. This concern represents the fear that "the poor get children" and become poorer while the most highly education and incomed "get richer" without children. Hunt & Hunt (1982) theorized that constraints of the "career system", which was established by men who held little family involvement or responsibility, would prohibit future families with children from making the dual-career choice. Conversely, it was speculated that couples who choose the dual-career lifestyle will not have children.

Mobility. As women joined the labor force, the issue of family mobility became more complex. Wife's employment must often be considered before the decision to relocate is made. When both people work, unless the couple wants to have a commuter marriage, they must choose which job has priority. In the past more often than not, the husband's job took priority (Sandell, 1977), but Bird and Bird (1985) found that as wives made more money and held more modern sex-role attitudes, their jobs had more of an impact on the decision to move. One reason for this may be that family income would not increase with the move. It has been shown that earnings of the husband increased with migration but the wife's income usually decreased for at least 2 years (Sandell, 1977). No doubt, as women earn higher incomes and higher occupational statuses, couples will become less mobile and some will follow her career instead of his. Sharda and Nangle (1982) stated that when wives contribute substantially to family income and status, husband's chances for occupational mobility are restricted. Here we see evidence that the dual-earner system requires some concessions for one or both members of the couple.

Marital satisfaction. Both high-income and low-income husbands can be adversely affected by wife's employment. One explanation for this is that traditional single-earner men continue to be more highly esteemed than men with employed wives (Stanley, Hunt, & Hunt, 1986). Fendrich (1984) found that husbands with high incomes suffered reduced self-esteem when wives worked and if their wives' salaries were near or above their own, they had more distress. For wives, findings indicate that it is how much her work intereferes with role expectations that creates conflicts or damages her marital adjustment (Houseknecht & Macke, 1981). Yogev (1982) pointed out that working couples are most happy when: the wife works by choice, not necessity; the wife is not more successful than the husband; the spouse's attitudes towards the wife's working are congruent; the spouses are satisfied with thier jobs; and the couple are not at a low socio-economic level (possible because lower income wives work out of necessity and/or her employment connotes the husband's failure to provide).

Financial management. Traditionally wives who had the highest marital satisfaction have had husbands with the highest incomes and husbands who had the highest marital satisfaction had wives who performed household tasks well. Berry and Williams (1987) found that "for wives, the most important predictor of quality of life was satisfaction with spouse and the second most important was satisfaction with income" (p.113). For husbands, the same two variables best predicted quality of life but in reverse order. This finding for husbands suggests that Bernard's (1981) "good-provider role" (husband provides for family so that wife has no need to work) is still an active ideal in the perceptions of some men. In other words, "it is through his earning capacity that the husband receives a major portion of his affirmation of success in life and vindicates his existence" (Berry & Williams, 1987, p.115). By the same token, women may still feel most successful when they have landed a high-income husband.

Over the past two decades, couples who got caught in the transition from the single-earner to dual-earner family have found ingenious ways to manage their money so that her earnings could be camouflaged in order to "save face" for him. Everyone got in on the act — bankers, employers, suppliers, and government agencies (Bird, 1979). Only his income was counted when calculating affordable family housing or other types of credit. It was assumed that her money was either "pin money" or was money earmarked for a special purchase, which was in either case considered temporary (after all, she might leave the labor force because of childbirth, husband's mobility, or at her whim).

If a wife was a full-time homemaker, her economic contribution was also overlooked so that no insurance provision was made for her, neither life nor disability. There is ample evidence that the economic value of a housewife is substantial, yet all too often little thought is given to this contribution until the housewife becomes unavailable due to illness, accident, divorce, or death, and replacement services become necessary. In addition, most working wives are also housewives (Vanek, 1984), and if circumstances result in their unavailability, not only is their earned income lost, but costly household services will need to be purchased. Clearly women's lives need to be insured proportionately to their economic family contributions in the same way men's have been.

Several types of money management patterns have been identified in couples: wife management; husband management; husband or wife (usually the husband gives the wife) gives other an allowance; joint management; and independent management (spouses' incomes are kept separate) (Edwards, 1982; Pahl, 1983). It has been found that income level helped determine which management system couples used so

Men, women, and society as a whole must face the conflicts between work and family.

that: low incomes used husband or wife responsible for management; middle-income couples used allowance or joint management; and high income used independent management (Pahl, 1983).

Work/family types. The traditional nuclear family in which the husband/breadwinner carried out "instrumental" functions and the wife/homemaker performed "expressive" functions (Parsons & Bales, 1955), is now being replaced with role-sharing (Haas, 1980), symmetrical (Young & Wilmott, 1973), or parallel (Ross, Mirowsky & Huber, 1983) family types. This period of transition from the single-earner family or "two-person career" (Hunt & Hunt, 1977; 1982) to the dual-earner family represents a shift in gender roles from complementary to more egalitarian roles. In spite of these changes, Gerson (1986) pointed out that there are still women who prefer a traditional division of roles.

Scanzoni (1972) presented a typology of family patterns that are currently relevant: husband head-wife complement ("two-person career"); senior partner-junior partner (husband's job has priority over wife's); and equal partner (careers of equal importance). Atkinson and Bales (1984) expanded this typology to include wife as senior partner (wife's job has priority over husband's). It was stated that in about 12-15% of couples wives earn more than husbands.

An expansion of these patterns will be necessary in the future. As more women join the labor force, family lifestyles change, and male-female roles become less polarized, patterns of work and family will take on several forms. Presented in Table 1 is an outline of the proposed work and family styles that will prevail. Within these styles attitudes and behavior towards sex roles can vary on a continuum from traditional to egalitarian. Any of the couples may or may not have children. It is expected that dual-professional couples will have the smallest number of children and the largest number of childless couples. Couples may go into and out of the various work/family styles for various periods. For example, either spouse may be in school or staying home with children (usually the wife) for a period of time. The majority of wives who have professional careers or jobs with non-employed husbands are in the "provider role" because husbands are either in school or unable to earn income due to physical or mental disability, lay-offs, firing, or drug/alcohol addictions. It is rare for husbands to choose unemployment. Unemployment of wives may be chosen (to be full-time housewife or to go to school) or undesired due to layoffs, firing, or unavailability of appropriate job. Non-employed couples are expected to increase because of increased population in the aging.

Table 1. Predictions of Future Work/Family Types

Work/Family Type	Expectation	Theoretical Model
1. Dual-career couples	Increase	Equal partner
2. Career husband/job wife	Increase	Husband senior partner/Wife junior partner
3. Career husband/non-employed wife	Decrease	Husband head/wife complement
4. Career wife/job husband	Increase	Wife senior partner/Husband junior partner
5. Career wife/non-employed husband	Stable	Wife in "good provider role" or wife head/husband complement
6. Career-sharing couples	Stable	Equal partner
7. Dual-job couples	Increase	Equal partner
8. Job husband/non-employed wife	Decrease	Husband head/wife complement
9. Job wife/non-employed husband	Stable	Wife in "good provider role" or wife head/husband complement
10. Non-employed couples	Increase	May be any of the patterns

Note: Career indicates professional level employment (requires high and long-term commitment)

Summary and Conclusions

Although experts and lay people have differing opinions about the desirability and impact of women's employment, all agree women are in the labor force to stay. This change in family and work has occurred so quickly that patriarchal North American societies have not yet adapted to the change in terms of attitudes and behavior towards roles. Men are still the expected and preferred "family provider" by men, women, and children. The facts that men are no longer the sole provider and that women are working for groceries, not "extras", are realities that simply have not "sunk in".

The majority of change thus far has been on the part of women. As a result of the women's movement and the economic climate of the '70s women have educated themselves, gone to work, and made some inroads into management (12% of Canadian managers are women according to Bassett, 1985) and professions. In the home, change has been minimal. Working women spend less time in housework but they still do the same chores — the clothes are washed, meals are prepared, and the house gets cleaned. They are not hiring others to do these chores and women are experiencing role overload. Men are helping with children more by spending more time nurturing and playing with children. They do not spend more time in housework or childcare, regardless of wife's employment status. Men still have more power in the decision-making arena than wives. This dominance reigns in the most important family decisions — residence/mobility and financial management. Thus, it can be concluded that men have changed little in work or family.

The greatest change for women is in fertility. They are choosing to delay births, have small families, or no children. It seems likely that this is one way women can adapt to the dual-earner patterns and gain some control over role overload. Choosing to limit family size is becoming more of an option for women than choosing whether to become employed or not.

Now that the evidence is in about family and work those of us who work with families face the challenge to design programs or services which best meet the needs of today's and tomorrow's families. ☐

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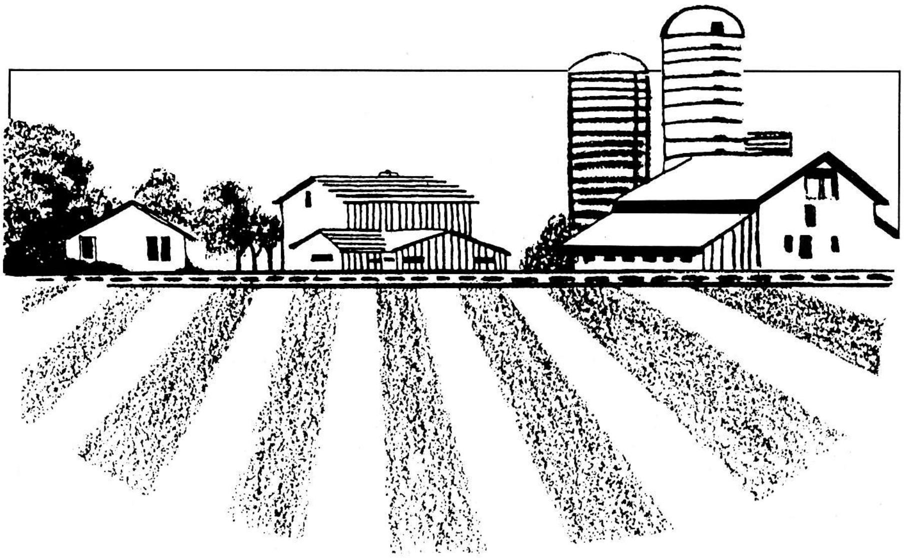

Lack of Power

A Source of Farm Stress

Lilly J.S. Walker and James L. Walker

Abstract

The recent farm financial crisis has focussed attention on the complexity and stressfulness of farm life. Professionals in rural areas are increasingly aware that effective programming must be designed to help farm families cope with high levels of stress. This paper reviews recent research on farm stress and shows how farm stress is related to lack of power themes. Implications for educational programming and therapeutic interventions with farm families are discussed.

Résumé

La crise financière qui a frappé récemment le monde de l'agriculture a attiré l'attention sur la complexité de la vie sur la ferme et sur le stress qui la caractérise. Les professionnels oeuvrant en milieu rural sont de plus en plus conscients de la nécessité d'élaborer des programmes efficaces pour aider les familles qui vivent sur la ferme à surmonter ce fort stress. Cet article traite de la recherche réalisée dernièrement sur ce stress et montre comment il se rattache au manque d'une forte motivation. L'article discute des implications au niveau de l'établisssement de programmes éducatifs et des interventions thérapeutiques auprès des familles vivant sur la ferme.

Until recently, the public image of farming was one of a tranquil lifestyle viewed as considerably less stressful than urban living. The reality of agriculture is that it is a complicated, high-pressure business with economic uncertainties, intense time-constraints, complex intergenerational relationships, and safety and health risks. The farm is a stressful place to live and work. The farm financial crisis of the past few years has focussed attention on the complexity of farm life and on the reality of the feelings of powerlessness and frustration that farm families are experiencing.

As research continues to demonstrate a link between chronic stress and illness (Minter & Kimball, 1980), we are increasingly aware of the personal, psychological, and physical costs of stress. Since farming is one of the top 10 most stressful occupations (Smith, Culligan, & Nurrel, 1977), we need systematic information on the stress levels of farm families and the factors that produce stress.

Most current definitions of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) emphasize the relationship between the environment and the individual. According to these theories, stress is a consequence of an individual's appraisal of environmental demands (i.e., stressors). Stress is conceptualized as a process of appraising events (i.e., stressors) and reacting with personal distress (i.e., stress) in the absence of appropriate coping strategies. The physiological, emotional, cognitive, or behavioral changes (i.e., symptoms) individuals experience are the product of stress. In other words, when individuals feel powerless over their lives they experience stress which manifests itself through various symptoms.

In a recent study of farm stress, Walker and Walker (1987, March) found that farmers have higher stress and symptom levels than urban comparison groups. Compared to urban residents, farm men and women showed higher incidences of loss of temper, back pain, behavior problems in children, forgetfulness, fatigue, headaches, marriage problems, sleep disruptions, and frequent illnesses. Many farm stressors were associated with feelings of lack of power.

Power has been described as a hierarchy of three overlapping concepts: Personal power, Interpersonal power, Organizational power (Colwill, Pollock, & Sztaba, 1986). Personal power is defined as the ability to feel in control of one's environment. Interpersonal power is the ability to influence the actions and views of others. Organizational power is the ability to mobilize resources in order to achieve results.

Stress and Personal Power

A recent study of stress among farmers (Walker & Walker, in press, a)

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Illustration courtesy of Manitoba Educational Television.

suggested that lack of personal power is related to increased levels of stress. Those individuals who have less control over their environment have higher stress and depression levels than individuals who have greater amounts of personal power and control.

The demographic differences in stress levels among farmers (Walker & Walker, in press, a) vividly demonstrates the inverse relationship between personal power and stress. Farmers who have less personal power or less control over their environment (younger farmers, mixed farmers, and females) have higher levels of stress and stress symptoms.

The significantly higher stress levels in younger farmers may be due to two factors: lack of financial power and lack of decision-making power. Young farmers, generally, are more highly leveraged and have less financial freedom as they are more dependent on financial institutions; thus they have less personal control over their financial affairs. Many young farmers are second or third generation operators of family farms and the father-son relationship often influences the working relationships on the farm. During interviews (Walker, Walker, & MacLennan, 1986) many young farmers expressed feelings of powerlessness and frustration as they described their efforts to be viewed as equal partners in decision making.

Further support for the hypothesis that lack of personal power is related to higher levels of stress is provided by differences in stress levels observed in the type of farming operation. Stress levels were higher in mixed and dairy farmers than in grain farmers. Mixed and dairy farmers are more constrained by the complex and constant demands of their farming situation. Grain farmers, by comparison, have limited time restrictions and have large portions of time in which they are free to choose how they spend their time. In other words, grain farmers are less controlled by time restraints and thus have more personal power.

A number of researchers (Capener & Berkowitz, 1976; Hedlund & Berkowitz, 1979; Walker & Walker, in press, b; Walker, Walker, & MacLennan, 1986) have explored reasons why stress levels of farm women are typically higher than in farm men. One theorist (Radloff, 1975) maintains that early in life women are socialized to be more dependent and powerless than men, consequently they tend to have less control over their lives. This view was often articulated by farm women during interviews as they described their attempts to respond to and fill the multiple expectations from husband, family, and community.

Research (Walker & Walker, 1987, March) indicates that men and women differ in the way they perceive stressors. Although six categories of farm stressors: Financial, Work-Overload, Social, Weather, Worry, and Hassles have been identified (Walker & Walker, in press, a), the perception of which events are most stressful is related to differences in views of personal power and influence. Men, who generally gain most of their feelings of self-worth and power from work, identified major stressors which were work related. These included issues related to financial concerns, government policies, geographical isolation, farm labor resource needs, and concern about the future of the farm. This contrasted noticeably with the major stressors identified by women: conflict with spouse, time pressures, political issues, government regulations, financial worries, and geographical or personal isolation. Women strive to gain feelings of personal productivity and power by investing in more diverse roles and wide-ranging responsibilities and their stressors reflect this diversity.

The lack of personal power farmers experience is evidenced most clearly by their feelings of depression and self-blame. Walker and Walker (1987b) found that one third of the farmers studied were experiencing mild to severe depression. One half reported feeling discouraged about the future, and 30% reported being disappointed with themselves. Occupational and personal stress were found to be associated with depression levels. Individuals who were more highly stressed had higher scores on discouragement, disappointment, and punishment items of the Beck Depression Inventory. In other words, high stress levels were associated with increased feelings of depression which evolves out of a loss of confidence in one's own ability to control one's life and work. These findings support the work of Seligman (1975) who has demonstrated that feelings of powerlessness or helplessness are precursors to depression.

Stress and Interpersonal Power

Research findings (Walker & Walker, in press, b) support the view that lack of interpersonal power, or the inability to influence the actions and views of others, is related to stress. Women identified lack of interpersonal power as a major source of stress. In fact, one of the major predictors of stress symptoms among women was the stressor "Major decisions being made without my knowledge or input". Farm women often articulate that their lack of status interferes with their ability to function as equal partners in the farming business. They feel frustrated when bankers ignore them, even though they are the financial managers, when neighbors criticize their work activities, and when other family members fail to consider their views and needs in farm decision making.

As farmers become more highly stressed, interpersonal power and the ability to influence others weakens. It has been found (Walker & Walker, in press, b) that social and family stressors were the most powerful discriminator between depressed and non-depressed farmers. It is significant that farmers with weak social support systems are more likely to experience feelings of depression than individuals who have strong support systems. As farm families experience increased levels of stress, they are less able to provide for each other the interpersonal support they need to function effectively. Stress produces a negative spiral effect: Increased stress produces increased powerlessness which produces even more stress. As these two factors increase, families begin to attack one another producing substantial increases in the amount of family conflict, anger expression, intergenerational disagreements, and personal isolation.

Stress and Organizational Power

The current financial crisis facing farmers is strong evidence of their lack of organizational power. Several researchers (Keating, Doherty, & Munroe, 1986; Olson & Shellenberg, 1986; Walker & Walker, 1987, March) report that there is an increased trend for farm families to identify financial issues as major life stressors. The extent of the farm financial crisis is reflected by the estimate that 20% of North American farm families are unable to service their debts (Harl, 1985) and that one third of family farms are in financial trouble (Winkler, 1985). For financial reasons, many farmers are leaving the land. As the number of farmers decreases, their political power also decreases. They thus become increasingly unable to change the government policies that affect their financial success. Farmers today express frustration that even though they are more productive, their financial success is controlled by market conditions and government policies that are beyond their control. These feelings of lack of power are exacerbated by the diversity of farming. Farmers are separated into different interest groups which interferes with their ability to coalesce and mobilize themselves in order to gain organizational power.

Effective Intervention Strategies

One of the keys of successful stress management is to gain power and control. Practitioners can help farm families reduce stress by helping them gain personal, interpersonal, and organizational power.

Educational programming which helps farm families develop coping strategies for handling their general categories of stressors will facilitate the development of feelings of personal power and control. Programming should emphasize the development of skills in problem solving, co-operative decision making, conflict resolution, and worry management through cognitive strategies. The content of educational programming (Walker & Walker, 1987a) should focus on managing financial issues and concerns, dealing with work overload, strengthening social support, handling the hassles and uncontrollable events of farming (e.g., weather), and reducing worry.

When planning human resource programming, it is important to recognize that two of the major blocks to rural involvement and participation in programming are time constraints and geographical distances. Since 97% of Canadian families own a television (El Gamal, 1987) and recognizing that television is most frequently used by individuals who have limited access to other resources, educational planners should consider using television, videos, and accompanying workbooks in outreach programming.

Practitioners can help farmers gain feelings of interpersonal power with programming that teaches effective communication skills and strategies for gaining political influence. As families learn more effective ways to communicate with each other, they build personal support systems within the family that help buffer the negative effects of stress. They learn to engage in family problem solving and to recognize and reinforce the skills and abilities of each family member. Strong family supports help individuals gain increased levels of self-esteem and build feelings of interpersonal power.

Community involvement and political activity are also vehicles for gaining interpersonal power. Farmers who are involved in their communities and those who have developed strategies for political action generally are perceived as leaders and spokespersons. They have status and interpersonal influence.

One of the most effective resources for helping farmers gain organizational power is through the development of support groups. The essence of a support group is that it is made up of people who support, accept, and encourage one another as they help each other in coping with difficult life situations. Self-help groups provide the opportunity for people to help and be helped. Through this process people learn ideas from one another, share effective strategies for coping and problem solving, and develop feelings of personal and interpersonal power. Groups provide not only the opportunity to share personal coping strategies but may also provide the vehicle for gaining organizational power as farmers search together for community based solutions to their problems. Support groups encourage farmers to focus on their similarities, rather than their differences; support groups can bring farmers together in a united voice so they can mobilize themselves for effective politicial action.

One of the greatest challenges of practitioners working with farm families is to help farm men and women deal with their sense of powerlessness. We can help when we recognize the multifaceted nature of powerlessness; assess the stressors, stress levels, and symptoms that are the product of those feelings; and develop intervention strategies that facilitate the development of personal, interpersonal, and organizational power. □

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The Social Isolation of Professional Women

in Organizations

Irene Devine

Abstract

Although women managers increase in numbers yearly, the struggle to get women promoted beyond middle-management levels is still far from over. Prejudices and discriminatory practices still exist, albeit usually subtle and often unconscious. The problems women face need to be addressed by individuals, organizations, and dominant organizational members.

Résumé

Bien que le nombre de gestionnaires féminins augmente d'année en année, le combat pour que des femmes dépassent le niveau de la gestion intermédiaire est loin d'être terminé. Les préjugés et les pratiques discriminatoires existent toujours, quoiqu'habituellement subtiles et souvent inconscients. Les particuliers, les organismes et les dirigeants d'organisme doivent s'attaquer aux problèmes auxquels font face les femmes.

We read about the entry of large numbers of women into the work force during the last decade or so but the rise of women to positions of influence in organizations has not followed along. In fact, women's rise to upper-level positions in organizations has been prevented by a variety of factors, some overt and others more subtle and covert. There are deeply imbedded processes of treating women as second class people which are perpetuated within organizations, basically a microcosm of our larger society, and these processes impede and isolate women working in non-traditional jobs and positions from attaining upper-level mobility.

Organizations generally are formally structured according to rules of behavior, style of communication, and the kinds of relationships that grow directly out of the male experience (Stead, 1985). Advancement in these hierarchical organizations is fundamentally a political process (Harragan, 1977). Women are rejected for promotion to upper-level positions because they do not fit the normative model of the ideal (male) executive (Martin, Harrison, & Dinetto, 1983). Women are less likely to be viewed as qualified or as the best choice for the job (Epstein, 1975), particularly for positions that entail extensive authority over others (Wolfe & Fligsteen, 1979) or the right to make decisions affecting substantial resources or capital (Silver, 1981). Yet, to the extent that an individual has access to and control of resources, and centrality in organizational interactions, that individual becomes most important to ensuring organizational effectiveness (Smith & Grenier, 1982). Thus the formal system in organizations puts women at an overall disadvantage (Bartol, 1978).

The Informal Organization

An organization's formal structures and procedures however, represent only one reality of how significant issues are managed within any enterprise. We must also appreciate the impact of the informal system of relationships on an individual's success and satisfaction. The informal organization is another aspect of organizational life that creates barriers for women as they try to move up in the organization's formal structure. Informal social contacts are essential for information and guidance, especially for new organizational members (Schein, 1979). In fact, these informal processes may even undermine or contradict the formal system. For example, decisions may be made informally during a golf game and information necessary to a task may be passed along in a washroom when women are not present. Exclusion may

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lead to failure in understanding the organization's expectations, norms, and practices. These informal organizational channels are important for information and decision making, and furthermore, the closer one is to the top, the more commonly are evaluations and rewards determined by subjective criteria, and the more powerful is the informal system. Not being invited to join 'the boys' for drinks after work or for lunch creates strains and feelings of being left out and socially isolated from the dominant group. Failure to belong to this informal system not only leads to feelings of estrangement, but to a lower probability of good performance and career success (Devine, 1985; Marshall, 1984). Women are often not welcomed as members of the informal network and they face a variety of exclusion mechanisms in their attempts at entry (Richbell, 1976).

The closer one is to the top, the more powerful is the informal system.

One main reason for the difficulties women face in the informal system when they advance to upper-level positions is that they are disproportionately few in number — they are "tokens" (Kanter, 1977). Because they are few, they get more attention than their male peers, and this increased visibility creates performance pressures. Being noticeable is a two-edged sword in that successful deeds may get more recognition, but mistakes are also more public. Token women get used as showpieces to demonstrate that the specific organization has women in its upper-level ranks and their acts may be viewed as symbols of how women-as-a-group perform. This may create feelings of not being heard and accepted as an individual which further adds to feelings of social isolation.

Token women may also be typecast into stereotyped sex roles, and women find this stressful and frustrating. Thus, for instance, women in professional positions report being mistaken for secretaries or treated like dates during their professional encounters. As well, they frequently are asked to do tasks that are traditionally "female" concerns, such as counselling, being on Equal Employment committees, or taking minutes at meetings.

Additionally, it has been shown that male managers tend to exaggerate the differences between their own and the women's cultures, which again results in female exclusion from informal groups. For example, the normal flow of events gets interrupted by reminders of the women's difference by apologies for swearing in the presence of women. Sexual innuendos and traditional "male" topics (like sports) tend to increase when token women are present. These behaviors put women in a double-bind situation; should they accept the tokenism and not call more attention to themselves, or should they object to the comments and risk further exclusion?

Discriminatory behavior towards women may not necessarily be deliberate, yet the effects may be destructive. When women cannot mingle with males as equals in the informal settings where business gets done, they then cannot be included as equals, cannot be let in on the silent rules of the game and are blocked from access to information about implicit norms, power coalitions, and the political system in general. Progression into upper-level ranks depends upon entry into the informal system where proper qualifications, competence, and legislated behavior will not necessarily help the individual woman.

Women need to recognize the power of networking as an essential skill for career advancement.

Recent studies suggest that professional women competing in a male-dominated environment where women are in the minority and exclusion mechanisms exist, are subject to chronic stress (Hall & Hall, 1980). Besides being affected by stressors common to all individuals, token women are also affected by performance pressures related to being highly visible, by sex role stereotyping, and by social isolation. This has a direct impact on their overall effectiveness in both work and non-work settings.

There may come a day when being male or female in a work situation is inconsequential but till that day there is much work for women to do. It is essential for women and for organizations to plan deliberate strategies to overcome the experience of social isolation and exclusion. Two of these strategies will be briefly discussed. Firstly, women need to learn to accept the importance of the informal system as women tend not to place as high a priority on this part of organizational life as on the formal work arrangements. Women need to take as many opportunities as possible to get to know people in the organization outside the circle they usually operate in. Women need to make as clear a distinction between the formal and informal system as men do and learn to mix socially with male colleagues and not prove themselves only through hard work. High competence is important but only to a point; subjective factors are highly important, too. Women have learned the power of networking with other women as an invaluable information system. Now they need to recognize its importance in the organization and incorporate networking as an essential skill for career advancement.

The Mentorship Function

The mentorship function in organizations is also critical to the advancement of women who may meet with resistance from the 'establishment' and whose belonging in the work world may be somewhat shakier than their male counterparts. Mentorship refers to the individual relationship between senior and junior members of a profession, through which the senior member provides guidance, example and support, and serves as advocate for the junior member as they pave the way for career success. There is evidence to show that women do not have access to mentors to the same extent as men. Men are more likely to serve as mentors for other men, and women may be further excluded from mentorship by male colleagues due to lingering prejudice against them and a lack of acceptance of their rightful place in the corporate world.

Certainly the most obvious solution to ensure mentorship for women is to dramatically increase the number of women in senior positions. However, this is not likely to happen overnight, as years of conscious and unconscious organizational discrimination have kept women out of the upper echelons. Increasing the number of women, however, is not the only answer. Changes in numbers will not alter attitudes, reverse stereotypes, and change practices which have existed in organizations for centuries. Institutions must play an active role in encouraging and rewarding mentorship of women by both men and women. It should not be assumed by organizations and by individuals that only women have a responsibility to junior professional women. Men must also serve in substantial numbers as mentors for women, to provide the same benefits and opportunities to aspiring women as to aspiring men. It will only be when professional women achieve equity in the informal supports afforded to their male colleagues that they will reach equal levels of career success and satisfaction.

Summary and Conclusion

To conclude, this paper has briefly looked at how the informal system of relationships in organizations still creates barriers and obstacles for women trying to achieve career success. Contrary to the media image, women have not climbed as far as their male counterparts and they still face considerable problems. The dilemma of career advancement is closely related to the issue of relationships which cannot be solved by simplistic prescriptions. Women will remain socially isolated and excluded from their colleagues and the organization unless both individuals and organizations actively work to eliminate and reduce the social barriers that presently exist. Organizations need to provide opportunities for employees from different areas to meet each other and support cross departmental and cross level contact. Individuals, too, need to set about identifying and connecting with people on whom they might depend to accomplish their career agenda. These issues still need to be resolved before women can not only enter organizational hierarchies but also compete and advance along with their male counterparts. □

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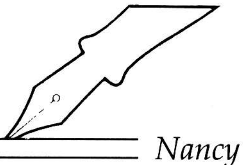
Write for Power



Nancy Perozzo

Abstract

Home economists often fail to use the power hidden in routine writing tasks. By developing a more powerful writing style, we can promote our ideas, careers, and organizations more effectively.

Résumé

Les conseillers en économie familiale ne profitent pas toujours des avantages que leur offre la rédaction de textes courants. En adoptant un style plus vigoureux, nous pouvons mieux promouvoir nos idées, nos carrières et nos organismes.

When you sit down to write a memo, letter or report, how do you feel? Are you uncomfortable, bored, frustrated, or all of the above? On the other hand, when you write special marketing campaigns or course promotion material, do words like creative, interested, and stimulated come to mind?

Why are positive feelings so rarely associated with the day-to-day administrative business writing which makes up a large part of most jobs? Probably the answer is that we underestimate the potential of these routine tasks. Consequently, we fail to approach them with the same enthusiasm and care that we give to other writing assignments. As a result, we miss thousands of excellent chances to gain power for our ideas, careers, and organizations.

When we care enough to make every writing task the best it can be, we unleash several hidden powers: • get attention, • save time, • save money, • simplify the complex, • engage and persuade, • protect, and • promote.

Get Attention

Good writing has the power to grab your reader's attention right away. With the ever-increasing competition for the reader's time, given the stacks of paperwork circulating in every workplace, a powerful opening to your correspondence is one way to get attention. Consider the next two opening paragraphs from a home economics department to a maintenance supervisor. Which is most likely to attract your reader's interest?

Example A:

Subject: Westingpoint Range Room 243. Several years ago, we purchased a Westingpoint range (model #27342) which was installed in Room 243. It has been an excellent appliance requiring very little servicing. Unfortunately, we now have a problem . . .

Example B:

Subject: Urgent Request to Repair Shock Hazard. Please service the Westingpoint range in Room 243 immediately. Yesterday, two students received strong shocks while operating the oven controls.

Remember that your readers' eyes will be drawn to correspondence that appears readable. They will look first at short, easy-to-read messages. Long, difficult correspondence is put to the bottom of the pile to be read when there is more time, if ever.

To attract immediate attention adopt techniques used by popular magazines and newspapers:
- be direct — state main point immediately;
- use white space — lots of blank space adds to the ease of reading; and
- use simple words, short sentences, and frequent paragraphs. Catching your reader's attention is a necessary first step if you want to influence behavior.

Save the Reader's Time

Readers appreciate writers who recognize that time is valuable. Clients, colleagues, bosses, subordinates — all readers — appreciate letters, memos, and reports that they can understand in one reading, preferably a quick one. This appreciation translates into increased power for the writer and her ideas.

You can write to save your reader's time by avoiding these common pitfalls:
- ineffective or non-existent organization;
- unnecessary background information;
- facts of interest only to the writer;
- professional jargon and business letter clichés; and
- wordiness.

Save Money

What organization today fails to admire the person who can cut costs? If you write well, you can be such a person. Good writing saves money. It gets your message through the first time with no costly rewrites or follow-up letters. It also reduces paper, equipment, and secretarial costs, by being 20-50% shorter than the usual, careless business letter or report.

Recent studies estimate that the average business letter costs about $8.00 to $37.00 depending on the salary of the writer (Salter, 1983; Shurter & Leonard, 1984, p. 3). If we assume even a modest saving of 20% or $1.60 to $7.40, the benefits to your employer's budget could be substantial. All it takes is a little skill and effort.

Try to reduce sample sentences (a) and (b) by at least 20% without sacrificing meaning. (A suggested alternative follows in brackets.)

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a) All parents need to be told that lunches that are sent with the children in day care should include only food that is nutritious. (Tell all parents that their preschooler's lunch must include nutritious foods only.)

b) The purpose of this report is to bring to your attention the problems that were encountered by the seminar organizers. (This report outlines the problems faced by seminar organizers.)

Simplify the Complex

Who would you say are the most powerful people in our profession? Who influence the greatest number of people? Likely you identified several people whose names appear frequently in newspapers and magazines. Their success reflects their ability to communicate technical data so that lay audiences can understand. Let your business writing contribute to your success in the same way.

Home economists, writing for non-home economists, gain power when they can transform complicated textbook language into words that should be used to answer a consumer's question. Compare the next two examples. Sending the first one to a consumer will likely alienate, not influence, the reader.

Example A: Technical language

Rancidity in butter is catalyzed by the lipases which accelerate the hydrolysis of fats when held at room temperature. To decelerate this fat-splitting enzymatic action, the fat should be stored at temperatures below 4°C.

Example B: Lay language

You will find that refrigerated butter will keep longer. One reason butter spoils so quickly at room temperature is that this higher temperature speeds up a naturally occurring chemical change. The by-products of this change give the butter a bitter taste.

To simplify the complex, try these techniques:

- match your vocabulary to the technical knowledge of the reader;
- include day-to-day comparisons to clarify difficult points;
- include just enough information to answer the question; and
- use graphs, charts, and diagrams to aid understanding.

Engage and Persuade

Most of us want to do more when we write than just attract the reader's attention. We want to engage our reader in what we have to say. We also want our reader to take our advice or respond favorably to our requests. In a sense, we want our writing to do a sales job for us; but you would never know this by reading the usual business letter.

For example, let's assume you work for a social service agency that is eager to encourage other agencies to offer a successful program you've developed. Another agency, having heard of your program, writes to you asking for information. You could write the cliché-ridden, almost form-letter response shown in Example A. Or you could take advantage of an excellent sales opportunity and compose a persuasive response, similar to Example B.

Example A:

Dear Sir:

Please find enclosed the information requested on Helping Agency's family living course.

If there are further questions, please don't hesitate to call.

Example B:

Dear Ms. Everett:

We are pleased with your interest in our family living project. The initial report, which I have sent along, outlines how you could increase your contact with high-risk groups. We were pleased and surprised with our results.

If you decide to go ahead with a similar program, I would be pleased to talk to you in detail about what did and didn't work.

The second letter succeeds where the first one fails because it attracts the reader's interest and encourages co-operation using effective writing techniques:

- treats the reader as a person — using personal pronouns (I, you, we) and a conversational tone ("which I have sent along");
- addresses reader's needs — increase *your* contact;
- expresses enthusiasm; and
- expresses a more genuine offer of further help.

Protect

Those of you who have worked in the consumer studies field realize how important it is for consumer protection to have things in writing (e.g., guarantees, sales agreements, etc.). Unfortunately, you are less likely to recognize that accurate, unambiguous records of meetings, important conversations, agreements, and instructions can also protect you. When you have these records, even if you have to produce them yourself, you can cut down on the selective recall, denials, and deliberate misinterpretations that erode your power.

However, here is a word of caution. Written records can work against you as Sir John A. Macdonald, former Prime Minister of Canada, noted in a comment to his Sergeant at Arms: "Harry, my boy, never write a letter if you can help it, and never destroy one" (cited in Colombo, 1974, p. 376).

Promote

You have already seen how effective writing can promote your ideas, but not how it can promote your career. A recent study of successful managers ranks effective writing skills at, or near, the top of any list of skills that carried them to their positions of power and influence ("A neglected business skill?", 1985). These same managers recognize the need for these skills in employees seeking promotion.

Do your daily writing tasks, the ones that your manager is most likely to be familiar with, promote your abilities as well as they could?

The next time you take up your pen, recognize the potential of the task that lies before you. Write for power. ☐

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The Role of the Private Sector

in Consumer Protection

Trevor A. Watts and Richard E. Vosburgh

The marketplace is traditionally thought of as having three components: the private sector, the public sector, and the consumer sector. The private sector (including crown corporations) is the provider of goods or services. The public sector is represented by all levels of government. Their primary role is to regulate the marketplace. This is done in the interests of fair competition and to protect consumers both from unfair or dishonest practices and from products or services which are unsafe for consumption. The consumer sector is made up of individual purchasers and users of goods and services and those organizations, such as the Consumers' Association of Canada (CAC), which are dedicated to representing consumer interests to the other sectors. This paper addresses the actions that the private sector takes to protect the interests of consumers of the goods and services provided. However, to understand the protection available to consumers, these actions must be examined and interpreted in the light of the activities and roles of the other two sectors.

Abstract

The private sector is considered here in a context of the other sectors of the marketplace and recognizes contributions to protection provided by consumer education and information programs as well as by regulation and standards setting, redress, and consumer involvement. Conclusions reached emphasize the need for the development of theory and research on the consumer protection system as a whole as well as the various components of the system.

Résumé

Le secteur privé est ici examiné en comparaison avec les autres secteurs du marché, et il reconnaît la contribution en matière de protection qu'apportent les renseignements donnés aux consommateurs et les programmes d'information, ainsi que les règles et normes établies, les mesures de réparation et la participation des consommateurs. Les conclusions auxquelles l'auteur arrive soulignent la nécessité d'approfondir la théorie et la recherche sur le système de la protection du consommateur pris dans son ensemble aussi bien qu'envisagé sous chacun de ses aspects.

Framework for Looking at Protection

The field of consumer protection is diverse. It includes the provision of education, information, alternate choices of products or services, and redress, as well as standards and regulations. Combining these various forms of protection with the consumer rights they are to protect, and the major actors in the marketplace that have responsibility or opportunity to provide protection, results in the matrix shown as Figure 1. The seven rights are those promoted by the International Organization of Consumer Unions. It represents the most comprehensive list of rights that is widely circulated.

Figure 1, although simplistic in approach, raises questions about what is happening in each of the 91 cells of the matrix. What would we expect or want to happen? What could happen if future regulatory reform should alter the current distribution of activities? The matrix also provides a context for discussing the contributions of any one sector.

Changing Expectations of the Private Sector

The ideal for any provider of a good or service is to have that product meet all the legal requirements for the manufacture and sale of the product as well as fully meeting the expectations of the purchaser and user when the product, as designed, is put into use. While this ideal is easily stated, it may prove difficult to apply to a mass market in a pluralistic society. Yet, this appears to be the task that is increasingly expected of the private sector. The pressures in this direction include regulatory reform, rising consumer expectations, and the increasing number and broader scope of liability judgements against sellers.

Regulatory reform. For decades, the federal government has had in place legislation designed to protect consumers from the potential effects of unsafe products, unscrupulous business practices or limited competition in particular markets. Through the '60s and '70s, Canada saw a substantial increase in the amount of regulation directed to consumer interests in the marketplace. This was a period of expansion at both federal and provincial levels in both regulation and the provision of services to develop a more informed and knowledgeable consumer. At the same time, business became more aware of and more responsive to the consumer movement. This was particularly evident in efforts to develop products that provided greater perceived satisfaction to purchasers and users. Many firms attempted to become more responsive to consumer complaints, concerns, and needs, through establishing consumer affairs departments. The establishment of these consumer affairs departments led to an increase in quality assurance, consumer education, and consumer information programs. They also set the stage for thinking of consumer protection in broader terms.

In the late '70s, the tide turned against more regulation and a move developed towards increased industry self-regulation. Some forms of deregulation of selected industries were initiated. This change in direction was the result of several factors. Some industries began to reduce new product development activity to avoid the risk of large liability judgements or the burden of compliance with existing regulations. The public sector itself was finding the monitoring and enforcement of existing regulations

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becoming more complex and costly. Programs of consumer education and information appeared to be useful alternatives to protect consumers in a pluralistic society.

One of the major changes in responsibility for consumer protection is a shift to industry self-regulation. Self-regulation moves the decisions about the amount and kind of protection closer to the people who are most involved with a market and most involved with the resources necessary to assure consumers are protected. The major drawbacks are that members of most industries can ignore the standards with little real consequence, and the industry setting the standards has the most to gain from setting and enforcing a lower level of standards. Any change in responsibilities implies trade-offs. How these trade-offs will be made remains to be seen. Without careful attention to the risks in this protection process, all the efficiencies promised may not materialize.

In areas that the government has not pushed responsibility back to the private sector, the federal government, in particular, has moved to increase the opportunity for involving the private and consumer sectors in discussions with regulators and policymakers when new regulations or revision to existing regulations are proposed. There are many avenues used by the government for seeking participation in this interface — hearings, study task forces, information letters. These provide means for information input and feedback from the various sectors. Input from interested parties is reviewed and adjudicated to arrive at a proposed regulation that may not completely satisfy all interests but is, hopefully, more compatible with the majority of interests in constraining a certain business behavior or in providing a level of protection for the needs of a designated consumer group.

Consumer expectations. Consumer expectations for both product performance and product quality appear to have changed in recent years. Consumers make greater demands for consistency of product attributes (especially on frequently purchased items) as well as have expectations of higher product performance standards. Many products have become more complex in technology and provide more functions, but the consumer expectations of trouble-free performance and usable product life span often have exceeded the capabilities of this increasing technical complexity.

With many products, and for many consumers, the nature of the price-value relationship has shifted from simply a focus on functional or aesthetic properties of a product to what additional benefits it delivers as perceived by consumers. Thus, the scope of consumer values has expanded creating pressure to develop standards for more features of products. These newer specifications may be for products where some corporate standards already existed as well as for products that have been added to the list for which standards must apply. Generally, consumers in Canada are more highly educated than they were in the past which leads to many who could be more knowledgeable in making a purchase decision. They can better evaluate and weigh information made available about a product. At the same time, however, in 1981 about 20% of the Canadian population over 15 years of age had less than a grade 9 education. These people include both older and younger consumers who are not likely to have the capability of reading a complex package label or product usage instructions. To what level of consumer ability should a product manufacturer target performance safety standards? To what level of consumer knowledge should product information be directed to protect the consumer both from physical harm and in making the best product purchase and use decisions? These are difficult questions, but ones that the private sector must, and the regulators may, address.

Plumptre (1978) in writing of the days of the formation of CAC after World War II refers to "those were the days of informed common sense" (p. 129). Three decades later Thorelli (1978, p. 12) wrote of the "information seeker" — the consumer who is aware of more information sources than the average consumer and who will take a more active role in enforcing consumer

	Safety	Redress	Information	Education	Choice	Environment	To Be Heard
Government Regulation Standards Information Programs Education Programs							
Business Self-Regulation Standards Information Programs Education Programs Product Development							
Consumer Organization Voice of Influence Information Programs Education Programs							
Individual Consumer	Act Safely	Complain	Be Informed	Be Prepared	Choose Wisely	Exercise Restraint	Participate

Figure 1. Rights to be protected.

rights, and exercise consumer responsibility in letting product manufacturers and/or regulators know of product shortcomings or business malpractices. As Thorelli continues, the information seekers are "the vigilantes of the marketplace" protecting other consumers as well as themselves. To accomplish this role effectively the information seeker requires elements of consumer education, consumer information, and a mechanism for consumer protection. This provides a spectrum between consumer rights and consumer responsibilities. The information seeker has the *opportunity* of making an informed and rational purchase decision. If the decision is more emotional than rational, they at least should be in a better position to evaluate the pros and cons of the decision. However, there is a substantial, yet unknown, segment of consumers who are not information seekers, or who may not be information seekers all the time. Some protection is gained by the activities of the vigilantes but only in areas of interest to the information seekers. What level of product protection should be afforded these non-information seekers? Again this is an important question for providers of goods and services.

In relation to advertising and the law, Sweitzer, Temple and Barnett (1979) provide three models of audience behavior: legal reasonable man, rational economic man, and emotional psychological man. In the first instance, a set of rules and regulations determines what an advertisement may or may not say. In the second, instance claims of price, product availability, and functional attributes are included. Here it is not difficult, legally, to determine what may be misleading or deceptive. The third instance, emotional psychological man, involves subjectivity of feelings, perceptions, and attitudes. The first two categories are easier for both providers and regulators of goods and services to deal with. The third and subjective category deals with credulous behavior by the population.

Credulous consumers are not informed consumers or information seekers. The concept of the "credulous consumer", often applied in testing advertising for misleading claims, identifies consumers who are willing to believe sellers even when "the average consumer" would see that the claims are puffery, an incomplete story or simply not in the consumer's best interests. The information seeker is at the other end of the spectrum. The credulous consumers are clearly vulnerable. They are a special case that goes beyond ordinary measures for self-protection.

A major change in responsibility for consumer protection is a shift to industry self-regulation.

Other pressures. In the last several years, two additional forces appear to be putting more pressure on the private sector to take responsibility for product quality (however defined by the various segments in the market place). First, there are the product liability judgements that seem to include more and larger judgements against sellers. These judgements have contributed to increased insurance rates and to some companies avoiding some product areas because they see the liability for product performance and quality as being beyond their capability for risk. A preference seems to exist for the known risks of the problems experienced rather than the unknown risks of a new product that addresses the problems. Second, there are the usual market forces put into play through more demanding consumers and competition. This is essentially the process of defining an acceptable level of protection by a form of trial and error in the marketplace.

When is Protection Well Done?

When trying to assess how well consumers are protected, it is important to discuss criteria by which a level of protection could be measured. Three criteria are often noted in the literature: an absolute measure of consumer satisfaction (the higher the better), a defined level and type of consumer well-being, and some form of cost-benefit analysis (which implies a recognizable point at which the marginal gain in protection is equal to the marginal cost of providing the protection).

Consumer satisfaction in a pluralistic market system may be studied by considering consumer perceptions of marketplace experiences including product performance (cf. Anderson, 1977; Churchill & Surpenant, 1982; Woodruff, Cadotte, & Jenkins, 1983). This approach, based on consumer defined notions of what is acceptable, has been challenged by those that hold to more objective criteria that measure well-being (cf. Olander, 1977; Wickstrom, 1983). There are many philosophical differences between the two views. One sees the marketplace as responsible for consumer satisfaction while the other sees it as responsible for life support that encourages satisfaction to be found outside marketplace activities. Nevertheless, practical considerations make well-being the more realistic long-term approach as a criterion for evaluating protection — the assurance that whatever happens, consumers can recover.

The third approach seems to be implicit in some government and corporate decisions. These decisions imply that protection will not be offered because the number of failures is expected to be small and the cost of inspection would be high. The challenge is to reach a trade-off that all parties understand and agree to. A cost-benefit analysis requires an expanded concept of the cost of protection. The usual concept of cost reflects out of pocket costs for the decision maker. These can be considerable when the costs of research and development, quality control, production, training of involved labor and management, and the cost of greater investment required are considered. However, a protection/no protection decision in one part of the system can create costs elsewhere in the consumption system. Thus the total cost of delivering a basic standard of well-being is higher than it would appear. If some part of the system fails, it may become impossible to deliver the level of protection expected. These surprise costs could include the cost of litigation, lost life, cynicism (and higher costs of marketing), and possible losses to consumers of choice, innovative products, or even of restricted availability of basic products.

The Private Sector: What It Does Best

In the early decades of this century when the marketplace was production driven, not much attention was paid by the manufacturer to the quality level or consistency of goods produced. These were the days of evolution from the craftsman or skilled worker, who may have been more quality conscious because of concern for individual reputation and image, to the beginning stages of mass production of products. In later decades the impetus shifted and became, generally, marketing driven with producers of goods becoming aware of identifying and providing products that fulfilled some real or perceived consumer need. This shift intensified emphasis on consistency in production in terms of product benefits and performance provided to the consumer. The concept of quality control evolved with a transition from subjective assessment to physical and chemical measurements to, today, in some industries, robotic monitoring of process and finished product to meet pre-established specifications.

Another dimension of quality control of great importance to the manufacturer is related to product and process cost control. If the product produced is outside specification or acceptable consumer limits, the product is unsuitable for sale and must be destroyed, reworked or shunted into another brand or label. For any alternative there is a cost to the manufacturer. This dimension, although primarily driven by manufacturer interest, does have the potential for benefit for the consumer. The problem, in terms of consumer benefit or protection and consistency of product quality, is the degree of latitude that may exist around minimum and maximum levels of "acceptable" or standard product as viewed by the producer. This can represent a wide gap between consumer expectation and manufacturer specification tolerance limits. This is particularly true as consumers become more aware of and demanding of product quality. Companies trying to monitor changing consumer expectations use various kinds of consumer research. This can prove helpful to the extent that research is consistent and well done.

An extension of the quality control concept has been the introduction of quality assurance. This extends monitoring to prescribed specifications back through the manufacture and handling of raw materials and starting stock, and forward through the handling and storage of the product, retailing, and consumer use of the product. This extension of the quality concern for product again provides protection and cost efficiency for the manufacturer but also adds protection for the consumer to receive a product in the condition in which it was designed to be used.

These observations lead us to tentatively suggest that the private sector offers an efficient way to have quality defined and assured whenever the market involved is made up of knowledgeable consumers (high level of consumer literacy). But the private sector, left unregulated, makes a poor instrument of social policy for other market situations.

A corporate function that can provide useful direction for both sellers and consumers is that of consumer affairs. The field of consumer affairs has developed as a distinct area in the last 15 years. In that time it has become the centre for three major activities: complaint handling, consumer education, and consumer information programs. In some cases, consumer affairs departments have served as consumer voices as well as corporate ears. These activities clearly match four areas in which consumer rights have been defined and need to be assured. It is encouraging to see consumer affairs departments taking on these roles, particularly as more responsibility for consumer protection moves towards the private sector. However, the field is young and suffers from two major limitations. First, there is an emphasis on scrambling to prevent problems from getting out of control rather than on planning to maximize benefits to consumers. Second, there is a lack of systematic, theory driven research on consumer affairs topics. The fact that the field can borrow from the study of consumer behavior in marketing is helpful, but this does not relieve the need to ask how consumers interpret the consumer protection which is already in place or how to measure the level of consumer education consumers have obtained or need.

Directions for Theory, Research, and Practice

Consumer protection, in the limelight for the consumer movement of the 1960s, has taken a more balanced position in the 1980s. It is something to which all sectors of the marketplace contribute. It is also something about which we have more experience and, consequently, should begin to form theories for testing, for the guidance of policymakers and for teaching students of consumer affairs. To that end we would recommend priority be given to the development of criteria by which the effectiveness of a consumer protection activity might be measured and the desirability of protection (at some level) be determined. Not all protection activities can be expected to produce the same results in the same time period. A model needs to be developed that will take into account these variances so that further research can be done on relationships defined by the model. Understanding consumer perceptions, current coping behavior, preferred coping behavior and, of course, an objective measure of the risk involved would allow a more adequate understanding and development of effective protection policies. Finally, understanding alternatives to the more traditional regulatory and standards setting activities will help develop more finely tuned systems appropriate to a pluralistic society. In this regard several avenues for research might be developed, but basic to any fine tuning of protection is an understanding of consumer education and its role as the enabler of appropriate behavior in the marketplace. ☐

Consumer protection has taken a more balanced position in the 1980s.

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Editor's note: A bibliography on consumer protection is available on computer disk from the authors.

Social Supports for the Elderly

Neena L. Chappell

Abstract

This paper briefly summarizes and discusses the current state of knowledge in the area of social gerontology. The major emphasis is on interactions with family and friends, particularly in the caregiving role. The health status of the elderly and their general life situation are also discussed.

Résumé

Cet article résume brièvement où en sont les connaissances dans le domaine de la gérontologie sociale et en discute. Il insiste surtout sur les interactions avec la famille et les amis, tout particulièrement dans le rôle de prestataire de soins. On discute également de l'état sanitaire des personnes âgées et de leurs conditions de vie en général.

Most people are well aware of the increasing proportion of elderly persons in Canadian society. In 1981, according to the Canadian Census, the figure was 9.7%. There were more elderly women than men — 57% of the elderly were female. As these proportions of elderly increase, more and more attention is accorded this area. The percentage of elderly in Canadian society will peak when the baby boom generation enters the old age cohort around the year 2020. At this time approximately 20% of the population will be age 60 or over.

While our health does decline with age, our state of health during old age is not as negative as many images would suggest. Aggregate statistics from the Canada Health Survey point out that approximately 80% of the elderly have some chronic conditions. These chronic conditions do not, however, necessarily translate into functional disability. Approximately 50% of the elderly have some functional disability. Further, those with severe limitations or major functional disabilities represent an even smaller proportion of the elderly population — approximately 20% (Chappell, Strain, & Blandford, 1986).

In other words, while most elderly have some chronic conditions, few are severely limited in their day-to-day activities. Our health declines gradually and most elderly individuals adjust and cope with day-to-day life. The proportions with major disabling diseases increase primarily among the old elderly (usually age 75 and over, or age 80 and over). Even in terms of the feared senile dementias, best estimates are that only 5-6% of the elderly as a whole suffer from dementia. Once again this proportion increases significantly among the old-old — approximately 20% are believed to suffer from dementia among those age 80 and over (Bergmann, 1980; Pitt, 1982). In terms of overall well-being or life satisfaction, elderly individuals tend to have relatively good morale. Further, most elderly individuals do not reside in long-term care institutions. At any one time approximately 10% reside in such places with 90% living independently within the community.

These statistics have been presented in order to draw the background

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picture for the topic of this paper, social interaction in the day-to-day lives of the elderly. The foregoing points out that old age is not merely a time of deteriorating health as many believe. Rather, by far the overwhelming majority of elderly individuals live in the community, are functioning reasonably well, are certainly coping with day-to-day activities, and maintain good levels of subjective well-being. For most, social interaction with others forms an important part of their day-to-day activity.

Elderly individuals maintain intergenerational links as well as peer interaction.

The Lives of the Elderly

The area of social networks, and in particular of social support, has enjoyed increased attention from researchers lately. However the concept still remains elusive at the conceptual level. Several terms, including social bonds, social networks, meaningful social contact, availability of confidants, human companionship, social support, and social integration, are frequently used interchangeably. However, an affectional content and a psychological function are generally implied in all of these terms. Lopata (1975), for example, argues that the informal network is a primary support system involving "the giving and receiving of objects, services, and social and emotional supports defined by the receiver and giver as necessary, or at least helpful in maintaining a style of life" (p. 35). Most agree that there is a subjective dimension which refers to the quality of interaction (Cobb, 1976; Lowenthal & Robinson, 1976).

Living arrangements. While it is well recognized that the social network includes household members, other relatives, friends, neighbors, and instrumental relations, most of the research in gerontology has focussed on the family. Much knowledge has been accumulated in this area over the past several years. In terms of living arrangements, we know that approximately one-third of those living in the community live alone. This is true of Canada but also of all industrialized nations. This is not interpreted negatively as an abandonment of the elderly but rather is viewed positively as increased economic independence together with available housing options which permit the elderly to choose such independence. Indeed the phrase "intimacy at a distance" (Rosenmayr & Kockeis, 1963) aptly describes the type of family relations that the elderly themselves desire. They love their children and wish to have exchanges with their children but they do not choose to live with them any more than their children wish to have their parents live with them. Just under 60% of those living in the community are married and live with a spouse. The remainder, approximately 10%, live with someone other than a spouse (e.g., grandchildren, children, friends, etc.).

In other words, household composition for the elderly today represents by and large the nuclear family form, and in particular the married couple. This is especially true of elderly men. This gender difference is perhaps most evident when comparing marital status. Fully 73% of elderly men were married in the 1981 census whereas only 38% of elderly women were married. Elderly women were most likely to be widowed (49%), whereas fewer elderly men were widowed (14%). The greater likelihood of marriage among elderly men is attributed to the fact that women tend to marry men a few years older than themselves, at least among those who are elderly today, and they also have a longer life expectancy. As a consequence, elderly women can expect widowhood as a normal life stage. Furthermore, once elderly men are widowed they are much more likely to remarry than are women. This is partly due to the fact that there are many more eligible marriage partners available to men, in terms of widowed women their own age, but also the relative acceptability of marrying women younger than themselves.

There is some indication marriage itself may benefit men in particular. Hess and Soldo (1985) note that marriage seems to have a more protective effect for men than for women. Men are more likely to name their spouse and only their spouse as their confidant whereas women are likely to either name others or to name others in addition to their spouse (Hess & Soldo, 1985; Strain & Chappell, 1982). Further, it has been argued that women are more likely to maintain both kin ties and broader social networks within the couple unit so the death of the wife is said to leave the man without a confidant or links into the broader social network.

Although most elderly do not live with their children, fairly extensive contact between the generations is the norm (Shanas, 1979). Most elderly with children live close to at least one and see at least one often (Synge, Rosenthal, & Marshall, 1981). Friends tend to be age peers (Chappell, 1980), whether this is defined as someone who is also elderly, or as someone within 10 years of the respondent's age. Elderly individuals maintain intergenerational links as well as peer interaction.

Caregiving roles. Gender differences are also readily apparent when looking at the caregiving role in old age. As Brody (1981) has summarized so well, the strength of intergenerational ties, the continuity of responsible familial behavior, the frequency of contacts between generations, the predominance of families rather than professionals in the provision of health and social services, and the strenuous family efforts to avoid institutional placement of the old have all been well documented. The caregiving role, however, generally falls to the wife. This is because women tend to marry men a few years older than themselves and women have a longer life expectancy than men. As a consequence it is generally the husband whose health fails first and who dies before the wife. The wife is there to provide substantial caregiving if needed.

Second to the wife in terms of caregiving are children, usually the daughter (Hanson & Sauer, 1985). The role of daughters is well documented as different from sons. Daughters tend to provide hands-on and emotional support while sons, if involved, tend to provide advice and financial assistance (Horowitz, 1981; Treas, 1977). It should be pointed out, however, that where a daughter is not available either because there is not one or because of geographic distance, the son does step into this role. Next in frequency are other relatives and friends. Professionals are called in last.

Further, by far the majority of caregiving is provided by the informal network from family and friends, and not from the formal care system. Among those receiving formal care, fully 80% continue to receive assistance from the informal network (Chappell, 1985; Chappell & Havens, 1985). That is, despite concerns over the increasing costs of the formal health care system, the majority of care to the elderly is currently provided by family and friends. Among those elderly who do use formal services, only a minority (17-20%) are heavy users. The remainder use less or no more than younger adults (Roos, Shapiro, & Roos, 1984).

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Friends and neighbors. Compared to what we know about interaction and assistance among family members in old age, little is known about interaction with friends and neighbors. We do know that most elderly people have friends, most have confidants, and most interact with their neighbors (Peters & Kaiser, 1985). It is believed that the structure of friendship and neighboring ties is related to differences in interactional patterns compared with kin. Peters and Kaiser (1985) argue that kinship ties, which are more or less permanent and governed to some degree by ascription, involve a sense of obligation and are based on long-term commitment. Friendship ties, on the other hand, are characterized more by voluntary involvement, affective bonds, and consensus. Commitment to friendship rests more on the willingness of the friends to commit to one another than on a sense of obligation.

Neighborhood ties, while resembling friendship ties in many ways, require residential proximity and are more likely to be characterized by short-term commitment. Clearly kin can be friends or neighbors, and neighbors can be friends. Kin, it is believed, can best handle non-technical assistance involving long-term commitment. Neighbors are best able to provide non-technical assistance which requires faster immediate action or entails close proximity so that fairly close and continuous surveillance is involved. Friends, given their generally similar characteristics, share common experiences and are often sharing similar role changes so they frequently assist one another in learning new roles. It is believed that friends are called upon less for assistance than are family but they nevertheless are there in times of need. Much more research is required in this area.

Current evidence (see for example Chappell, 1980) suggests that friends, primarily age peers, share with the elderly common life experiences and common circumstances in life. This provides what Hochschild (1973) has called the sibling bond. The elderly have expressed greater satisfaction doing activities with friends than with family (Chappell, 1980). However, a good understanding of the differential role of kin, friends, and neighbors in the lives of the elderly has not yet been achieved. It is clear that few elderly are isolated from family or friends.

Role exits. As there has been an emphasis in the research on the family and with a concomitant lack of information on friends and neighbors, so too there has been a relative emphasis on role exits. We know quite a bit less about involvements during old age. There has been, for example, a fair amount of research on retirement, especially for men. There has been less on women, showing the gender bias within the research, to assume this is most important for men. Cumulative evidence suggests that most individuals adjust well to retirement, that it is not the traumatic experience it was once believed to be. Rather, it has become normative and expected within life today (Friedmann & Orbach, 1974; Goudy, Powers, Keith, & Reger, 1980). Research in the area of widowhood has tended to focus on women and less on men, again revealing the assumption that the marriage role is more important to women. This research suggests that most women adjust to and cope with widowhood although there is a bereavement process which they go through first (Lopata, 1973; 1979). Less attention has been devoted to the so-called empty nest syndrome but current research suggests that it does not exist. Couples report that when their children leave home their marital relationship improves although there is also some report of increased dissatisfaction (Atchley & Miller, 1980; Lowenthal, Thurnher, & Chiriboga, 1975). Only recently have enquiries been turning to role involvements and more positive aspects of life during old age, such as the grandparent role. Volunteering and involvement volunteer associations are sometimes suggested as a possible substitute for other roles (Swartz, 1978). However, to date it does not appear that a large proportion of elderly individuals engage in volunteer activities. Those who do are those who volunteered when they were younger (McPherson, 1983; Ward, 1979). Most of these studies focus on volunteer organizations so that an individual simply helping out a neighbor may not be included in the count. Much more research is required in this area and in particular in pursuing an understanding of the different role involvements that individuals have during old age.

Implications for Program Planning

There are several important implications for program planning and policy directives within the current state of knowledge. There is a recognition of the increasing proportion of *well* elderly. In other words, consideration given to programming directed at this group which recognizes that an emphasis on medical care oriented only to the ill elderly is not appropriate for all. Similarly, when the elderly do come in contact with current health professionals and paraprofessionals, those workers will be amiss if they assume the individual is necessarily in ill health and having a difficult time coping. Further, the elderly, like those of us who are younger, value their independence and autonomy. This is reflected in the concept of intimacy-at-a-distance and in the increasing numbers who choose to live alone.

The fact that the majority of care to elderly members comes from family

The current move to encourage greater familial care of elderly members may be misdirected.

and friends has important implications for government policy in this area. The current move to minimize the effects of the aging population on the health care system by encouraging greater familial care of elderly members may be misdirected. A substantial amount of evidence suggests that families already provide as much care as possible and view institutionalization only as a last resort, a last resort which is sometimes utilized only after the caregiver's health has been damaged. Forcing the minority who currently do not choose to provide care to the elderly into this situation in all likelihood will not lead to high quality care.

Recognition of the fact that a broader network than immediate family provides various forms of assistance to the elderly is important in the provision of formal services to the elderly. While there is increasing recognition that agencies should take into account not only the client's needs, but these needs in the context of the family, there has been virtually no attention given to consideration of existing arrangements for assistance from friends and more distant relatives outside of the household. It is argued here that all caregivers should be taken into account in a broader based policy.

Conclusions

The lives of the elderly are significantly occupied by their social interactions with others. The social environment, in other words, is a key and important aspect of their experiences. Much of the research in gerontology has focussed on the family and particularly on caregiving roles within the family although increasingly attention is turning to other types of interactions and to interactions with non-family members. Similarly, there has been an emphasis on role exits during old age (such as retirement, empty nest, widowhood). Role involvements (such as grandparenting and volunteerism) are now receiving more attention. Life during old age is a fascinating topic for research, one which is changing as society evolves. ☐

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Influences on the Decision to Major in Home Economics

Eleanore Vaines and Margaret Edwards Arcus

Abstract

The purposes of this study were: to identify the influences prevailing upon Canadian home economists as they chose to major in home economics; and to determine whether these influences differed when selected demographic variables were taken into account. Data were gathered from female members of the Canadian Home Economics Association using the Professional Socialization Influences instrument and a demographic questionnaire. Five factors were found to influence the decision to major in home economics: the service ideal; perceptions of future personal roles; secondary school home economics; perception of home economics as a female field; and 4-H experience. Age and age-related variables (year bachelor's degree completed; number of years employed, both as a home economist and in total; and estimated annual income) were significantly and consistently correlated with these factors. These findings provide some insight into the nature of influences on occupational choice in home economics and have practical implications for recruitment and for professional education in home economics.

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Résumé

La présente étude visait à définir les principaux facteurs qui influencent les conseillers canadiens en économie familiale lorsqu'ils choisissent cette profession, et à déterminer si ces facteurs variaient lorsqu'on tenait compte de certaines variables démographiques. On a recueilli des données auprès des membres féminins de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale, au moyen d'un outil appelé Influences sur la socialisation des professions et d'un questionnaire démographique. On a découvert que cinq facteurs influent sur la décision de se spécialiser en économie familiale: l'idéal de servir, la perception des futurs rôles personnels, les cours d'économie familiale au secondaire, la perception de l'économie familiale comme domaine réservé aux femmes, et l'appartenance à un club 4-H. L'âge et les variables connexes (année d'obtention du baccalauréat, nombre d'années de travail comme conseiller en économie familiale et nombre total d'années de travail, et estimation du revenu annuel) étaient reliés à ces facteurs d'une manière importante et constante. Ces conclusions font une certaine lumière sur la nature des facteurs qui influencent le choix de l'économie familiale comme profession. Elles ont en outre des implications pratiques au niveau du recrutement et de la formation professionnelle des conseillers en économie familiale.

One of the most important choices made by an individual is that of an occupation. Not only does one's occupation serve as a reference point for self-concept, but also "most of our lives are organized by the world of jobs and by our position in that world" (Troll, 1975, p. 113).

The study of occupational choices is well established (Moore, 1969; Super & Hall, 1978). Some who study occupational choice have focussed on the processes by which one selects an occupation. Super (1957, 1976), for example, postulates that this choice occurs in a developmental sequence, beginning with the emergence of an awareness of career choices and including the onset of job training, gaining an entry-level position, and becoming established within one's chosen area. Others who have studied career choice have examined factors which influence this choice. Influences found to be important include: family; peers; teachers and other adult role models; school, work, and leisure experiences; and socio-economic status and ethnic background (Karman, 1973; Moore, 1969; Osipow, 1973; Whitbourne & Weinstock, 1979).

Although the study of occupational choice is well established, little attention has been paid to such questions in home economics. Studies which have been reported are primarily U.S. studies (Aadland, Dunkleberger, Molnar, & Purcell, 1983; Peterson & Roscoe, 1983; Stout et al., 1981), with only Pain (1984) exploring the occupational choice of Canadian home economists. In her study, Pain used a consumer behavior perspective to examine the process of deciding to become a consumer of the educational services offered by a university home economics program.

The study reported in this paper addresses questions of occupational choice in home economics by examining influences on Canadian home economists at selected periods in the occupational sequence. It was anticipated that the findings of such a study would not only provide insight into influences on the occupational choice of Canadian home economists but would also provide information important in the recruitment and retention of members of the field. Such information becomes increasingly salient as the field undergoes change, as career

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options for home economics graduates expand, and as university programs compete for student enrolment. It was anticipated that the results of this study would also contribute to the growing body of knowledge about the field of home economics.

There were two purposes for this study: • to identify the influences prevailing upon Canadian home economists as they chose to major in home economics and to remain within the field, and • to determine whether these influences differed when selected demographic variables were taken into account. Information was sought concerning influences at four different periods in the occupational sequence: the decision to major in home economics; undergraduate education; first job experience; and graduate education. In this paper, only that information concerning the decision to major in home economics will be reported.

Methods

Subjects for the study were drawn from the membership list of the Canadian Home Economics Association (CHEA) as of April 1981, with every other name on that list included in the sample. These subjects were chosen for this study because CHEA has a national membership which includes those with diverse subject matter interests in home economics and because membership in CHEA reflects at least some visible evidence of identification with and involvement in the field. Since there were few male members in CHEA, only females were included in the study.

Data were gathered by means of a two-part questionnaire consisting of Form D of the Professional Socialization Influences instrument (the PSI) and a demographic questionnaire devised by the authors. The PSI was developed and validated by Anderson (1976) to identify those influences particularly relevant to home economists at different periods in the occupational sequence. Form D of this instrument includes four tests: Influences on the Decision to Major in Home Economics; Bachelor's Education Influences; Master's Education Influences; and First Job Experience Influences. Each test includes a series of statements which identify possible people, events, situations, and circumstances which might influence an individual's decision about whether to major in home economics. Five response options were provided for each statement: much positive influence; some positive influence; no influence or did not apply; some negative influence; and much negative influence. According to Anderson, the sources of influence reflected in the various test items were: oneself; people; the field; and the educational institution.

Age-related demographic measures included: age; year bachelor's degree was completed (1900-1980); total years employed; total years employed as a home economist; and estimated annual income (< \$10,000, \$10,000-14,999, 15,000-24,999, and \$25,000 or over).

Information about the respondent's employment was obtained: current employment status (employed vs. not employed); rating of present position (good, neutral, bad); and satisfaction with career (somewhat to very satisfied, equally satisfied or dissatisfied, and somewhat to very dissatisfied).

Family background variables included: father's and mother's occupation (professional, semi-professional, administrative personnel, office workers, semi-skilled, and unskilled); father's and mother's education (less than a bachelor's, bachelor degree, and advanced degree), and marital status (single vs. married).

Measures of the respondent's career training were: major emphasis in bachelor's and master's degree; and where they obtained these degrees. Their major emphasis in each degree was classifed as: consumer studies, housing, and design; foods, nutrition, and dietetics; family and child development, home economics and community services; general home economics and home economics education; and textiles, clothing, and merchandising. The institutions were classified into five groups: Western Canada, Prairie provinces, Ontario and Quebec, the Maritimes, and other countries, primarily the United States.

Data were analyzed in three ways. First, frequencies were tabulated for both the PSI and the demographic responses. These frequencies not only provided basic descriptive information but also assisted in identifying the demographic variables to be used in further analyses. Second, principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was carried out on the responses to the PSI. While factor analysis has often been used to determine relationships among variables in a study, it is increasingly being used to correlate items within a single instrument (Kerlinger, 1979). This use of factor analysis identifies those items which appear to belong together and reduces a relatively large number of questionnaire items to a smaller set of underlying dimensions or factors. According to Kerlinger, such data reduction assists in making interpretations of the data and is particularly useful when little is known in a field. Individual scores on the factors were calculated by summing the responses on the items in each factor, which had been identified by factor analysis. Finally, to assess whether the factor scores differed by the selected demographics, Pearson Product Moment correlations, analysis of variance, and *t*-tests were conducted as appropriate for the level of measurement of the variables.

Results

Frequency analysis. Questionnaires were returned from 517 of the 886 subjects in the sample, with 506 of these useable questionnaires (57% of the sample and 98% of the returns). The respondents came from all provinces in Canada, with the number from each province reflecting the pattern of provincial membership in CHEA. All respondents had received a bachelor's degree or were enrolled in a bachelor's degree program. They were relatively young (58% age 35 or younger); more likely to be married than single (50% and 40%, respectively); childless (66%); and living in urban settings (41% residing in communities of 500,000 or more).

Approximately half of the respondents had received their bachelor's degree during or since the 1970s. Forty-three percent had majored in general home economics or home economics education and 33% in foods, nutrition, and/or dietetics. The remaining respondents had majored in other home economics subjects: textiles, clothing, and mechandising (9%); consumer studies (7%); family relations and child development (6%); and housing and design (1%). (One percent of the respondents did not provide information concerning major.) Master's degrees were held by 25% and doctoral degrees by 6%. Nearly 80%

reported that they were employed, with 70% of them in full-time positions. Over one half (54%) were employed as educators or in foods and nutrition-related positions. The remaining were in diverse positions: communications, public relations, free-lance work, managers, homemakers, and students. The majority of those employed (85%) were satisfied with their present employment and with their employment career to date.

During the respondents' school years, fathers were employed in administrative (34%), professional (28%), and semi-skilled or unskilled (22%) occupations. Two thirds of the mothers were unemployed during this time. Fifty percent of the fathers and 60% of the mothers had no education beyond secondary school. For those respondents who were married, 75% of the husbands were employed in professional or semi-professional positions, with over one half having at least a bachelor's degree.

Frequencies were also calculated for the Influences on the Decision to Major in Home Economics test of the PSI. Six items on this test were reported to have had either some or much positive influence by more than one half of the respondents, with the greatest amount of influence reported for the items "What I thought it would be like to work in the field" (80%), "A desire to help people learn to do things" (79%), and "A desire to help others" (72%). Although few items were reported to have had any negative influence, those appearing most often were "My perception that it would be an easy major" (20%) and "The high female composition of the field" (18%). Over one half of the respondents indicated that 10 of the 18 items on the test either had no influence or did not apply. Among these items, "Belonging to clubs associated with the field" and "A desire to be seen as a good prospect for marriage" appeared most frequently (77% and 74%, respectively).

Factor analysis. While frequency tabulations of the items on this test provide some interesting information, the relatively large number of items, many of which appear to be interrelated, make it difficult to determine any patterns which might occur among the responses. Such patterns or underlying factors have been identified through the use of factor analysis and are reported in Table 1. Using the criterion of retaining factors with Eigenvalues greater than one, five factors were identified. Each factor has been given a name which the authors believe reflects most clearly the concept or idea linking the items in the factor. Factor loadings for each item are also included in Table 1. These loadings indicate the degree of relationship between the item and the underlying factor. The higher the factor loading, the more the item reflects that factor. Since factor loadings equal to or greater than .40 are considered large enough to warrant interpretation (Kerlinger, 1979), an item was retained if the factor loading was .40 or greater.

In factor analysis, the first factor extracted removes the maximum amount of common variance, while each subsequent factor accounts for as much as possible of the remaining variance. The amount of variance accounted for by each factor in this study is identified by the Eigenvalues reported in Table 1. Factor scores were calculated by summing responses to each item in the factor. These factor scores were used in subsequent analyses. A high score on a factor indicates that subjects were more likely to be influenced by that factor.

Analysis of factor scores and demographic variables. Correlations between individual scores on the five factors and selected demographic variables were computed using Pearson Product Moment Correlations. These correlation coefficients are reported in Table 2.

For the variables, major emphasis in bachelor's degree, major emphasis in master's degree, institution granting bachelor's degree, and institution granting master's degree, analysis of variance was done. The significant relationships were major emphasis in

Table 1. Factor Analysis of Influences on the Decision to Major in Home Economics Test

Factor Names and Questionnaire Items	Factor Loadings	Eigenvalue	Percentage of Variance Explained
Factor One: Service Ideal		**9.51**	38.1
A desire to help the world be a better place.	.79		
A desire to help others.	.74		
A desire to improve the quality of family living.	.67		
A desire to help people learn to do things.	.63		
Factor Two: Future Roles		**2.60**	10.4
Wanting to prepare for wife or wife/mother roles.	.83		
A desire to be seen by males as a good prospect for marriage.	.65		
Wanting to prepare for both a career and a family role.	.55		
Factor Three: Secondary Home Economics		**1.76**	7.1
A secondary home economics teacher.	.80		
A secondary school experience in the field.	.66		
Grades obtained in the field during my secondary education.	.62		
Factor Four: Female Field Protection		**1.40**	5.6
The general acceptance of the field as suitable for a woman.	.75		
A high female composition of the field.	.62		
Factor Five: 4-H		**1.19**	4.8
Belonging to clubs associated with the field (4-H, Home Ec Clubs).	.68		
	Residual		34.0
	Total		100.0

Table 2. Relationship of Demographic Variables and Influences on the Decision to Major in Home Economics (Factors)

		Factors				
Demographic Variables	*N*	**Service Ideal**	**Perception Future Roles**	**Secondary HMEC**	**Perception Female Field**	**4-H**
Age	490	.22**	–.18**	.12**	–.33**	.11**
Year Bachelor's degree completed	492	.11**	–.13**	.06	–.29**	.12**
Total years employed	463	.24**	–.15**	.10**	–.29**	.10**
Total years employed as a home economist	411	.21**	–.10**	.08**	–.24**	.09*
Estimated annual income	469	.13**	–.01	.06	–.16**	.08*
Rate present position	416	–.01	–.02	.00	–.02	.03
Satisfaction with career	453	.05	–.01	–.04	–.09*	–.00
Father's education	493	.01	–.03	.01	–.02	–.07
Mother's education	496	.03	–.02	.07	.03	–.05
Father's occupation	488	.03	–.01	.10**	–.02	.03
Mother's occupation	496	–.04	.03	–.02	.10**	–.08*

*$p \leq .05$

**$p \leq .01$

bachelor's degree and the service ideal, $F(4,491) = 3.38$, $p < .01$; and major emphasis in bachelor's degree and 4-H experience, $F(4,491) = 2.84$, $p < .05$. The Scheffe test indicates that those with a bachelor's degree emphasis in foods, nutrition, and dietetics have a significantly lower mean score on the service ideal than those with an emphasis in family, child development or home economics community service (M = 14.60 and 16.55 respectively). A Scheffe test on bachelor's degree emphasis and 4-H experience reveals that those who majored in foods, nutrition, and dietetics were less influenced by 4-H than those who majored in general home economics or home economics education (M = 3.10 and 3.38 respectively). Although significantly different, the means are not substantively different.

The mean score for one of the factors, preparation for future roles, differed significantly by marital status, but the differences were not substantive, $t(502) = 2.46$, $p < .05$. The married subjects had a mean of 9.51 and the singles, 9.04.

Employed respondents had a significantly higher mean score (10.46) than those not employed ($M = 9.76$) on the secondary home economics factor, $t(492) = 2.63$, $p < .01$. A similar pattern occurred for the 4-H factor, $t(493) = 2.57$, $p = .01$. The employed subjects had a mean score of 3.33 and the others a score of 3.10, suggesting the differences are not substantive.

Discussion

As reported in Table 1, a factor analysis of the Influences on the Decision to Major in Home Economics test revealed five factors: the service ideal; perceptions of future personal roles; secondary school home economics; the perception of home economics as a female field; and 4-H experience. Items in the first of these factors, the service ideal, reflect a desire to help others and to improve the quality of life. Although the analysis indicates that this was the most important factor in influencing these subjects to enrol in home economics (that is, it explains the greatest amount of variance), it is not clear from these data whether this factor reflects the subject's understanding of home economics as a helping profession or whether it is the result of traditional female socialization for the nurturant role. This study did not attempt to answer this kind of question, but it would appear to be an important distinction which might be pursued in future studies.

The second factor was the subject's view of future personal roles. Items found in this factor referred to preparation for marriage and family roles or to preparation for both career and family roles. While it might appear that these subjects did not see themselves only in terms of career roles, it must be pointed out that there were no questionnaire items in this test which focussed solely on "preparing for a career". Such an item had been included in the early development of the PSI, but did not survive the instrument refinement carried out by Anderson (1976). As work roles become more salient for women, the absence of a "career only" item in this questionnaire may distort understanding of the nature of influences on the choice of major and may limit the usefulness of this segment of the questionnaire.

It is not surprising that secondary school home economics and 4-H experience were identified as factors in the decision to major in home economics since these are among the ways in which an individual comes into contact with the field and becomes aware of it as a potential occupation. These two factors have been found to be influential in other home economics studies (e.g., Anderson, 1976; Stout et al., 1981).

The remaining factor — perception of home economics as a female field — is also predictable, since home economics is a female-majority field. While this factor indicates that these subjects were influenced by this perception, it does not address the motivations of these subjects for choosing a female-majority field. The study of these motivations is an important question which might be examined in future studies.

Four items in the test either did not appear in the above factors or had factor loadings well below the .40 cut-off point. These items concerned personal perceptions of working in the field, peer reactions to one's decision, a lack of knowledge of alternatives, and the perception of home economics as an easy major. These four items would appear to have had little influence on the decision of these subjects to major in home economics.

Although these five factors emerged as influences on the decision to major in home economics, results of the other analyses indicate that the influence of these factors differed when selected demographic variables were taken into account. As reported in Table 2, age was significantly correlated with factor scores. Those subjects who were older were more likely to be influenced by the service ideal, by secondary home economics and by 4-H, and less likely to be influenced by perceptions of future roles and of home economics as a female field than were younger subjects. All of these correlations were significant at the .01 level. Correlations consistent with this pattern were found for several age-related variables: year bachelor's degree completed; number of years employed, both as a home economist and in total; and estimated annual income. Nearly all of these latter correlations were significant at either the .01 or .05 level.

The strength and consistency of these age and age-related correlations indicate clearly that the pattern of influences on the decision to major in home economics is changing over time. It is important to point out, however, that although younger subjects were less likely to be influenced by the service ideal, still the service ideal was the most influential factor when responses for all subjects were combined. This point has particular significance since the majority of the subjects were under age 35.

A review of the data presented in Table 2 indicates that the other demographic variables did not have as great an impact on the factor scores as did age. There was a lack of significant relationships between the factor scores and the educational levels of fathers and mothers, but there were a few significant relationships for the factor scores and occupations of mothers and fathers. While few of these relationships were significant, it is interesting to note that the direction of the relationship differed consistently for fathers and mothers.

Of the remaining demographic variables assessed, there were a few differences in the factors by marital status, employment status, and major emphasis in bachelor's degree. The finding that those who were married were more likely to be influenced by their perceptions of future personal roles must be interpreted with caution because of the limitations noted earlier regarding the questionnaire items on future roles.

The subjects in this study who had majored in foods, nutrition, and dietetics had a lower mean score on the service ideal than those who had emphasized family, child development, or home economics community service. This would suggest that areas emphasizing physical sciences may be less oriented towards the service ideal than those with a social science emphasis.

Summary and Conclusions

This study sought to identify the nature of influences prevailing upon Canadian home economists as they chose to major in the field and to determine whether these influences differed when selected variables were taken into account. Data were gathered from members of the Canadian Home Economics Association using the Professional Socialization Influences instrument. Five factors emerged from the Influence to Major in Home Economics Test: the service ideal; perceptions of future personal roles; secondary school home economics; perception of home economics as a female field; and 4-H experience.

Age and selected demographic variables related to age (year bachelor's degree completed; number of years employed, both as a home economist and in total; and estimated annual income) were found to be significantly and consistently correlated with these factors. Some of the remaining variables (e.g., marital status, current employment status, occupations of fathers and of mothers, and major emphasis in bachelor's degree were significant for only some of the factors, and thus did not appear to have as great an impact as did age.

Two limitations of the study have been mentioned. First, the study was a retrospective study, and it is possible that subjects did not recognize or remember some of the influences which were improtrant at the time they decided to major in home economics. Second, there may have been some limitations in the instruments used in the study. Of particular concern was the absence of items which focussed on "career only" as a future personal role.

The findings of this study provide some insight into the nature of influences on occupational choice in home economics, and have practical implications for the recruitment of new members of the field and for their professional education. Several questions for further study have been suggested which would build upon and extend these findings. ☐

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Répercussions d'un cours d'économie familiale obligatoire sur la perception des rôles des hommes et des femmes

Claire Dumont

Résumé

Avant et après que l'économie familiale ne soit devenue une matière obligatoire mixte dans les écoles secondaires du Québec, le service de recherche de la Commission des écoles catholiques de Montréal a procédé à une évaluation des attitudes des élèves envers l'interchangeabilité des rôles des hommes et des femmes. On a élaboré un questionnaire de 40 questions, le Test sur l'interchangeabilité des rôles (I.R.), auquel ont répondu les élèves du secondaire II, au début et à la fin de la dernière année où ce cours était suivi surtout par les filles (1982-1983) et des deux premières années où les cours mixtes sont devenus obligatoires (1983-1985). Les réponses des élèves révèlent une certaine évolution vers une plus grande acceptation de l'interchangeabilité des rôles familiaux. Le rôle de soutien de famille revient toujours à l'homme et celui de gardienne du foyer à la femme, mais dans une mesure moindre.

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Abstract

The Research Department of the Montreal Catholic School Commission assessed students' attitudes towards the interchangeability of sex roles, before and after Home Economics became a compulsory co-ed subject in Quebec high schools. A 40-item questionnaire, the Interchangeability of Roles (I.R.) test, was prepared and administered to students in the second year of high school, during the last year in which Home Economics was mainly for girls (1982-83) and during the first two years of compulsory co-ed classes (1983-85), at the beginning and end of each year. The students' responses indicate some changes in the direction of greater acceptance of interchangeability of family roles. Men are still seen as breadwinners and women as homemakers, although to a lesser extent.

A la fin des années soixante-dix, compte tenu de l'évolution du contexte social, comme en témoigne le rapport du Conseil du statut de la femme (1978) "Pour les Québécoises: égalité et indépendance", le ministère de l'Éducation du Québec (1978), dans "L'école québécoise: énoncé de politique et plan d'action", rendait obligatoire pour tous les élèves, garçons et filles au secondaire, l'enseignement de l'économie familiale (2ème année) et l'initiation à la technologie (3ème année). Cette nouvelle mesure devait entrer en vigueur à l'automne 1983.

A la suite de cette décision, le Service des Études de la Commission des écoles Catholiques de Montréal (CÉCM), s'est préoccupé de préparer les enseignants d'économie familiale à accueillir cette nouvelle clientèle. Cette préparation paraissait d'autant plus nécessaire qu'il ne suffisait pas de désexiser cette discipline en obligeant les garçons à s'initier à des activités traditionnellement accomplies par les filles, mais d'orienter cet enseignement dans une perspective d'interchangeabilité des rôles masculins et féminins, rôles liés à l'évolution du contexte social.

En plus d'aider les enseignants à réviser leur approche et leur pratique pédagogiques à la lumière de cette nouvelle réalité, le Service des études s'est aussi attaché à connaître les attitudes des élèves vis-à-vis des rôles des hommes et des femmes dans la famille. C'est ainsi qu'est né ce projet de recherche en Économie familiale qui a reçu le feu vert des autorités de la CÉCM en juin 1979.

Ce projet avait comme objectifs spécifiques:

- d'identifier la perspective dans laquelle l'enseignement de l'Économie familiale devait s'orienter, compte tenu des stéréotypes existants, de la nouvelle dynamique des rapports familiaux hommes/femmes et des nouveaux rôles que les uns et les autres sont désormais appelés à jouer dans la famille;
- de mesurer l'impact sociologique qu'aurait l'enseignement obligatoire de l'Économie familiale pour tous les élèves de la deuxième année du secondaire, filles et garçons, à la CÉCM;
- d'évaluer les changements qui surviendraient dans les attitudes et les comportements des filles et garçons inscrits en Économie familiale dans les années à venir.

Le présent article a pour but de faire connaître les changements d'attitudes survenus chez les garçons et les filles de 12-13 ans, une année avant et deux années après l'insertion obligatoire des garçons dans les cours d'Économie familiale, en deuxième année du cours secondaire, à la Commission des Écoles Catholiques de Montréal.

Cadre de la recherche

Comme hypothèse de base, la recherche postulait que le simple fait de permettre aux garçons et aux filles de s'initier de façon concrète aux différentes tâches que suppose la planification alimentaire, l'habillement, l'aménagement d'un chez soi, la planification budgétaire, les relations familiales, etc., permettrait de sensibiliser les jeunes à la désexisation de ces tâches et provoquerait chez eux des changements d'attitudes et de com-

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Cette recherche a été conçue et mise en place à la Commission des Écoles Catholiques de Montréal (CÉCM) par Madame Henriette Rochette-Le Hir, en juin 1979; le Service des études de la CÉCM a poursuivi la recherche quand Madame Le Hir prit sa retraite en 1981, et le rapport final a été remis à la CÉCM en octobre 1985.

portements en ce qui a trait à l'interchangeabilité des rôles.

Que veut-on entendre par désexisation et interchangeabilité des rôles? C'est le fait que certains rôles ou certaines tâches puissent être remplis indifféremment par des hommes ou des femmes, ce qui implique qu'un rôle ou une tâche n'appartient pas de fait à un sexe plus qu'à un autre. C'est ce qu'on entend par désexisation des rôles. D'autre part, même si tous les rôles ou tâches peuvent être accomplis par des hommes ou des femmes, il est évident que la plupart des hommes et la plupart des femmes vont cheminer dans les rôles qui jusqu'ici ont été les leurs. Mais on souhaite que les hommes ou femmes attirés par certains rôles ne soient pas empêchés de les adopter mais que bien au contraire, ils sentent que la voie leur est ouverte et même que leur choix ne sera pas désapprouvé par le consensus social.

D'après Jessie Bernard (1976), désexiser les comportements, et les normes qui s'y rattachent, n'est pas une démarche à prendre ou à laisser; c'est un impératif fondamental; la question n'est pas de se demander s'il faut le faire, mais comment le faire (p. 222).

Le document "Un nouveau défi" (Rochette-Le Hir & Barrette-Orfaly, 1981), publié par le Service des études de la CÉCM à l'intention des enseignants en Économie familiale, fait le point sur la question des rôles, tant sur les plans sociologique et psychologique que sur le plan de l'approche pédagogique à utiliser dans les cours d'Économie familiale.

Ainsi, pour les collaboratrices de la recherche, le passage de la désexisation à l'interchangeabilité des rôles présentait un défi énorme car, disaient-elles, "si l'enseignement de l'Économie familiale n'est pas orienté dans cette perspective, on risque fort de rater le virage et de ne fournir qu'un vernis et un placage, c'est-à-dire donner des habiletés sans changer les attitudes et les comportements sur toute cette question si importante des rôles" (p. 33).

Pour mesurer les attitudes des élèves, il fallait définir l'objet de la mesure; en accord avec Brogan et Kutner (1976), il a été décidé de vérifier les idées que se font les élèves des rôles et comportements appropriés aux hommes et aux femmes dans la vie familiale et sociale, plutôt que les stéréotypes sexuels liés aux traits de personnalité qualifiés de féminins ou masculins tels l'aggressivité, l'indépendance, l'émotivité, etc. (Broverman, I.K., Vogel, S.R., Broverman, D.M., Clarkson, F.E., & Rosenkrantz, P.S., 1972; Petro et Putnam, 1979).

Instrument de mesure

Le Test I.R., mesure d'interchangeabilité des rôles, (Dumont & Rochette-Le Hir, 1980b), a été élaboré et mis au point pour les fins de cette recherche. C'est une échelle d'attitudes de type Likert; les élèves avaient à se dire fortement d'accord, assez d'accord, plus ou moins d'accord, assez en désaccord ou fortement en désaccord avec quarante (40) énoncés dont 23 sont formulés de façon à refléter une attitude d'interchangeabilité des rôles:

Exemple A:
> "Il est souhaitable que la préparation des repas puisse se faire indifféremment par l'homme ou la femme quand tous les deux travaillent à l'extérieur"

et 17 de façon à refléter une attitude traditionnelle:

Exemple B:
> "Même si une femme travaille à l'extérieur, le mari doit être le principal gagne-pain de la famille".

Un élève fortement d'accord avec un énoncé formulé de façon traditionnelle recevait un point et celui fortement en désaccord 5 points; l'échelle de 1 à 5 s'inverse pour un énoncé formulé de façon à refléter une attitude d'interchangeabilité des rôles.

Le Test I.R. touche à quatre dimensions de la vie familiale et sociale:

Dimension 1:
les tâches telles l'alimentation, l'entretien de la maison, les décisions financières, etc.

Dimension 2:
les responsabilités des parents envers leurs enfants.

Dimension 3:
l'égalité des hommes et des femmes dans le milieu de travail et dans la vie sociale et politique.

Dimension 4:
l'égalité des garçons et des filles dans leur éducation et leur socialisation.

Chaque dimension comprend dix énoncés. L'opinion des élèves pour chacun des énoncés peut se traduire par un score de 1 à 5, pour chacune des dimensions du test, par un score de 10 à 50, et pour les 40 énoncés du test, il obtiendra un ensemble de points qui pourra varier de 40 à 200. Plus le résultat se rapprochera de 200, plus il signifiera une attitude d'interchangeabilité des rôles.

Cet instrument de mesure a été élaboré au cours de l'année 1979-1980 et sa construction a fait l'objet d'un rapport (Dumont et Rochette-Le Hir, 1980a). Précisons brièvement que ce test s'inspire d'une échelle d'attitudes proposée par Brogan et Kutner (1976). Sur les 40 énoncés du test I.R., 21 sont empruntés à l'échelle de Brogan et Kutner et 19 sont des énoncés originaux.

Le Test I.R. a été expérimenté en 1980-1981 et cette expérimentation a servi de base à la rédaction d'un guide d'utilisation et d'interprétation du Test I.R. (Dumont, Rochette-Le Hir, & Barrette-Orfaly, 1981), à l'intention des enseignants d'Économie familiale.

Administration du Test I.R. Le Test I.R. a été administré à des groupes d'élèves par leurs enseignants. Pour l'année témoin, on a choisi des enseignants de Français et pour les deux années expérimentales, des enseignants d'Économie familiale pour administrer le test I.R. aux mêmes groupes d'élèves en début et en fin d'année scolaire.

Le Tableau 1 présente le nombre d'élèves qui ont participé à la recherche. Pendant chaque année

Tableau 1. Nombre d'élèves qui ont participé à la recherche pendant les trois années

Années	Pré-test	Post-test	Test en mai seulement
1982-1983	446 garçons 561 filles	504 garçons 621 filles	— —
1983-1984	943 garçons 1060 filles	1003 garçons 1054 filles	— —
1984-1985	854 garçons 846 filles	580 garçons 529 filles	427 garçons 384 filles

Tableau 2. Comparaison des moyennes obtenues aux post-tests entre l'année témoin (1983) et les deux années expérimentales, pour l'ensemble des garçons et l'ensemble des filles

	1983	1984	1985	Diff.
Garçons	140.68	146.94		6.26++
	"		147.82	7.14++
Filles	167.72	171.08		3.36++
	"		171.73	4.01++

++significatif à .01

expérimentale, il est arrivé que des groupes d'élèves ne participent au Test I.R. qu'en mai seulement; pour les deux premières années, ces groupes sont peu nombreux et, faute de pouvoir les éliminer, les résultats de ces groupes ont été compilés et traités. Mais pour la troisième année, près de 45% des groupes d'élèves n'ont participé au Test I.R. qu'en mai seulement; pour ceux-ci, il a été possible de partager les élèves en deux groupes: ceux qui participaient pour la deuxième fois au test (groupe post-test), et ceux dont c'était la première fois (groupe test en mai seulement).

Analyse des résultats

L'analyse des résultats comprend des comparaisons entre:

- les résultats au pré-test et au post-test pour chaque année de la recherche (1982-1983, 1983-1984 et 1984-1985), pour l'ensemble des garçons et l'ensemble des filles.
- les résultats obtenus entre l'année témoin (1982-1983) et les années expérimentales (1983-1984 et 1984-1985) pour l'ensemble des garçons et l'ensemble des filles.
- les résultats obtenus aux trois tests de la troisième année de la recherche (1984-1985) soit le pré-test, le test en mai et le post-test, pour l'ensemble des garçons et l'ensemble des filles.

Pour obtenir plus de précision sur le traitement et l'analyse des résultats, on pourra consulter le rapport final de la recherche qui s'intitule: De la désexisation à l'interchangeabilité des rôles familiaux (Dumont, 1985).

Résultats et discussion

Résultats après les trois ans d'expérimentation. Après trois années d'expérimentation auprès des jeunes de 2ème année du secondaire, nous pouvons affirmer que l'application du programme d'Économie familiale à tous les élèves a engendré chez les garçons et les filles une progression des attitudes vers l'interchangeabilité des rôles. En effet, les résultats démontrent qu'entre l'année témoin (1982-1983) et la première année où garçons et filles suivaient les cours d'Économie familiale, les attitudes des élèves ont évolué de façon significative vers l'interchangeabilité des rôles. Pour l'année suivante (1983-1984), l'évolution des attitudes des garçons et des filles est encore significative par rapport aux résultats de l'année témoin, tel qu'illustré au Tableau 2.

Cependant, entre les deux années pendant lesquelles tous les élèves ont suivi les cours d'Économie familiale, l'évolution semble se poursuivre mais les résultats n'indiquent pas de différence significative quant aux attitudes des élèves en ce qui a trait aux rôles des hommes et des femmes dans la famille.

Il faudrait poursuivre la recherche pour pouvoir vérifier si on a atteint un plateau ou si la progression des attitudes est toujours effective.

Résultats des élèves en début d'année scolaire. Comment réagissaient les élèves à leur arrivée en classe en septembre, d'année en année?

Les résultats nous indiquent que les garçons ont accepté facilement l'obligation de suivre les cours d'Économie familiale. En effet, le groupe des garçons de septembre 1983 affiche déjà en début d'année, des attitudes plus orientées vers l'interchangeabilité des rôles que le groupe de garçons de septembre 1982, l'année témoin. De la même façon, le groupe des garçons de septembre 1984 diffère de façon significative du groupe des garçons de 1982. On voit donc qu'un consensus social s'est établi puisque les garçons acceptent d'assez bonne grâce l'idée de suivre d'année en année le programme d'Économie familiale.

Par contre, il faut attendre la troisième année de la cueillette pour que les résultats du groupe des filles indiquent une différence significative quant à l'évolution de leurs attitudes. Ceci peut s'expliquer d'abord par le fait que dès l'année témoin, les attitudes des filles s'orientaient déjà vers l'interchangeabilité des rôles; si bien que le groupe de septembre 1983 n'était pas très différent du groupe de 1982. L'évolution des attitudes des filles devient significative en septembre 1984. On peut penser qu'il a fallu un an de preuve ou d'épreuve pour que les filles acceptent et voient d'un bon oeil la présence des garçons aux cours d'Économie familiale.

On peut également faire l'hypothèse que les filles reflètent ainsi l'attitude de leurs enseignantes, quelque peu réticentes au départ, à accepter les garçons dans leurs classes. Il ne faut pas oublier que l'interchangeabilité des rôles suppose de la part des hommes et des femmes l'acceptation de l'autre dans leurs champs de responsabilité respectifs. Cette acceptation n'est pas toujours facile pour les élèves comme pour les enseignants.

Tableau 3. Comparaison des moyennes obtenues aux pré-tests entre l'année témoin (1982) et les deux années expérimentales, pour l'ensemble des garçons et l'ensemble des filles

	1982	1983	1984	Diff.
Garçons	136.72	143.93		7.21++
	"		141.39	4.67++
Filles	162.47	164.37		1.9
	"		165.34	2.87+

++significatif à .01; +signficatif à .05

Tableau 4. Rang des dimensions du test I.R. selon le score moyen obtenu au pré-test de 1985, pour l'ensemble des garçons et l'ensemble des filles

Rang	Garçons	Filles
1er: Dimension 4	37.44	44.61
2ème: Dimension 3	37.31	43.56
3ème: Dimension 1	37.21	43.06
4ème: Dimension 2	36.11	40.90

Tableau 5. Comparaison des moyennes pour les trois groupes de l'année 1984-1985, pour l'ensemble des garçons et l'ensemble des filles

	Groupe pré-test	Groupe de mai	Groupe post-test	Diff.
Garçons	141.39	140.89		-.50
		″	147.82	6.93++
Filles	165.34	169.16		3.82++
		″	171.73	2.57

++significatif à .01

Résultats obtenus selon les quatre dimensions du test. Le Test I.R. touche à quatre dimensions de la vie familiale et sociale. Pour les garçons comme pour les filles, les attitudes s'orientent plus facilement vers l'interchangeabilité des rôles en ce qui concerne l'égalité des garçons et des filles dans leur éducation et leur socialisation (dimension 4). Par contre, même si elles évoluent tranquillement, les attitudes demeurent plus traditionnelles chez les filles comme chez les garçons en ce qui a trait aux soins et à la garde des enfants (dimension 2) : c'est à la mère que ce rôle semble revenir, aux yeux des jeunes qui ont répondu au Test I.R.

En ce qui concerne la dimension 1 qui arrive au troisième rang, un examen des scores obtenus pour chacun des dix énoncés révèle que les résultats les plus bas sont fournis par les énoncés suivants : énoncé 29 pour filles et garçons, énoncés 1 et 30 pour les garçons seulement.

Enoncé 29:

> "Même si une femme travaille à l'extérieur, le mari doit être le principal gagne-pain de la famille".

Enoncé 1:

> "La place de la femme est à la maison", et

Enoncé 30:

> "C'est la femme qui doit avoir la responsabilité d'entretenir la maison".

L'enquête de Canter et Ageton (1984) auprès de 1626 adolescents américains de 13 à 19 ans démontre également que les garçons et les filles favorisent les rôles traditionnels d'homme pourvoyeur et de femme gardienne du foyer, et des enfants. D'autre part, Albrecht, Bahr et Chadwick (1979) ont trouvé que les jeunes couples, même s'ils sont plus ouverts que les plus vieux au partage des tâches, désapprouvent davantage qu'ils n'approuvent l'idée que mari et femme travaillent à mi-temps comme pourvoyeurs, et à mi-temps comme responsables de l'entretien de la maison et du soin des enfants.

La réalité sociale, les journaux en attestent, nous montre l'évolution rapide de la société du Québec en ce qui a trait à la famille. Qui doit informer les élèves que les rôles traditionnels de soutien de famille pour l'homme et de gardienne du foyer pour la femme, si pratiques et si économiques dans le passé, ne semblent plus aussi clairement définis dans notre société d'aujourd'hui? Si cette tâche ne relève pas uniquement de l'Économie familiale, il n'en reste pas moins que ces cours constituent quand même un lieu de prédilection pour amener les élèves à réfléchir aux conséquences de l'évolution de la famille au Québec.

Test I.R. agent de changement. Pour aider les jeunes à réfléchir, nous pensons que le Test I.R., constitue en lui-même un agent de changement, et devient un facteur important dans la prise de conscience des jeunes pour les amener à assumer des rôles interchangeables.

En effet, au cours de l'année témoin, nous avons administré le Test I.R. aux élèves qui ne suivaient pas encore obligatoirement le programme d'Economie familiale. La comparaison pré-test/post-test indique que la différence entre les moyennes obtenues aux deux tests est significative. Pour cette première année, d'autres facteurs que le programme d'Économie familiale ont pu jouer pour amener les élèves à progresser vers l'interchangeabilité des rôles. Nous pensons que le Test I.R., administré en début d'année scolaire, a joué un rôle de sensibilisation en obligeant les élèves à donner leur opinion concernant différentes situations impliquant des hommes et des femmes dans la vie familiale, sociale et professionnelle.

Différences entre garçons et filles. Dans la troisième année de la cueillette des données auprès des garçons et des filles, la comparaison des trois groupes d'élèves: groupe pré-test, groupe post-test et groupe test en mai seulement, fait ressortir une différence entre garçons et filles qui nous permet d'identifier deux facteurs spécifiques pour expliquer la progression des attitudes des garçons et des filles vers l'interchangeabilité des rôles, tel qu'indiqué au Tableau 5.

Chez les garçons, les résultats des deux groupes qui ont répondu une seule fois au Test I.R., que ce soit en début d'année (pré-test), ou à la fin de l'année (test en mai seulement), sont sensiblement les mêmes alors que le groupe qui a participé au test en début et en fin d'année (post-test) obtient des résultats significativement plus élevés que les deux autres groupes. Ceci semble confirmer l'importance pour les garçons d'être sensibilisés aux thèmes de l'interchangeabilité des rôles, en ayant à répondre en début et en fin d'année scolaire, aux énoncés du Test I.R.; en effet, le programme d'Économie familiale n'est pas suffisant pour changer à lui seul les attitudes des garçons.

Chez les filles, les deux groupes qui ont répondu au Test I.R. en fin d'année (test en mai seulement et post-test), présentent des résultats relativement semblables, et les résultats de ces deux groupes sont significativement plus élevés que les résultats du groupe qui a répondu au test en début d'année (pré-test). Ceci permet de penser que, pour les filles, voir des garçons suivre les cours d'Économie familiale pendant un an, et donc vivre dans la réalité un certain partage des rôles, serait un facteur de progression des attitudes vers l'interchangeabilité des rôles.

Enfin, le tableau 5 nous montre très clairement que les garçons comme les filles progressent vers l'interchangeabilité des rôles mais que les résultats des garçons sont sensiblement moins élevés que ceux des filles. Dans sa comparaison de groupes d'hommes et de femmes évalués à cinq ans d'intervalle, McBroom (1984) a constaté également que les femmes sont, au départ, moins traditionnelles que les hommes et que ceux-ci évoluent plus lentement qu'elles vers des attitudes moins traditionnelles.

Conclusion

Nous pensons que dans l'avenir, le Test I.R. pourrait être utilisé non seulement comme instrument de mesure, mais comme un instrument de discussion et favoriser la prise de conscience des élèves en ce qui concerne leurs attitudes envers des rôles interchangeables dans la famille. Ce facteur étant important dans la progression des attitudes, en particulier pour les garçons, il semble donc intéressant de retenir l'idée d'une sensibilisation des élèves à l'interchangeabilité des rôles familiaux en début d'année scolaire.

Le programme d'Économie familiale obligatoire est sans aucun doute utile aux garçons, mais il est également utile aux filles qui trouvent là l'occasion de faire l'apprentissage concret de l'acceptation de l'autre dans leur champ de responsabilité traditionnelle.

Enfin, on peut noter que la progression des attitudes des jeunes vers l'interchangeabilité des rôles des hommes et des femmes dans la famille confirme de manière satisfaisante l'hypothèse de base de cette recherche originale effectuée par le Service des études de la CÉCM. ☐

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Dr. Susan Clark
Dean of Human and Professional Development
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Book Reviews

The Crisis of the Working Mother: Resolving the Conflict Between Family and Work by Barbara J. Berg. (1986). New York: Summit Books, 249 pages; $25.95.

This excellent book examines the origin of stress on working mothers. Berg has discovered that guilt over violating the "ideal standard of mothering", learned from our own mothers' example, is responsible for the often self-defeating ways we organize our lives. Great insight is provided into why most of us struggle with these combined roles. The book is based on interviews and questionnaires with nearly 1,000 working mothers. It has an extensive bibliography.

The range and depth of content is good. To aid understanding, the author looks at where the conflicts originate. Particular attention is given to the mother with a new baby and/or preschoolers. She looks at the effect on our jobs, our marriages, and ourselves. Berg addresses the conflicts through a blend of psychological insight, expert opinion, and personal anecdote. The one area that the author has neglected to cover is the working mother "caught in the middle" between the demands of teenagers and aging parents.

This book would be a suitable reference for senior high and university family life courses and is recommended reading for family life teachers, working mothers, and future mothers.

Reviewed by:
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Labour Pains: Women's Work in Crisis by Pat Armstrong. (1984). Toronto: Women's Educational Press, 273 pages; paperback, $9.95.

A statistical analysis of labor force participation of men and women in Canada, concentrating on 1981 and 1982 Statistics Canada figures, Armstrong makes a strong case for viewing women's employment as a crisis. She employs "an historical, dialectical and materialist perspective" to analyze the data, making the book "sex-conscious as well as class-conscious." Tables comprise one-fifth of the book's pages; these are percentage labour force participation rates by industry over time (1951-1981). Armstrong adheres closely to the data, keeping her theoretical orientation apparent to the reader. She shows a sex-segregated labor market in Canada.

Since women do household chores and are responsible for household budgets, they are forced to make adjustments when family incomes are low due to under/or unemployment. Tension and violence are other consequences of economic problems of families. Women, more than men, are likely to continue to get less income and fewer hours with part-time employment. Microelectronic changes are likely to affect employment of women adversely, as companies are seeking higher profits and fewer labor costs with more sophisticated machinery.

In the face of these changes, Armstrong successfully argues that we shall see a change in ideology, with an increase in people urging that "babies need their mothers" and other slogans to try to keep women out of the labour force. As governments still address men as the main target group for unemployment programs, a crisis for women is present.

Directed at a university-educated reader, Armstrong's work is clear and convincing. Home economists who work with women are advised to understand this book.

Reviewed by:
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Food, Nutrition and Health by F.M. Clydesdale and F.J. Francis. (1985). Westport: AVI Publishing, 293 pages; hardcover, $22.00.

Food, Nutrition and Health is an updated version of the authors' previous book, *Food, Nutrition and You*. Clydesdale and Frances blend information from various disciplines "to focus on the facts and point out the frauds" in order to meet the information demands of the health seekers of the 1980s. The "me generation" has become the "we generation." Their clarion call for fitness and acceptance of technology focus on becoming well-fed in a world community. Intertwined with the consumers' changing interests is the authors' concern for worldwide peace and prosperity.

The five chapters of Part I address nutrition and food safety in the United States. One-third of the book provides an overview of digestion and absorption, RDA's, the nutrients and their source, function, fads and fallacies. Shorter chapters discuss nutritional concerns of athletes, food additives, preservation and fitness and health issues. Chapters are well sub-divided. The content is contemporary. Tables, lists, drawings, and food intake and analysis forms are pertinent and well placed.

The 10 chapters of Part II, "Food Supply," provide an impressive, refreshing, global overview of our food supply, population density, areas of hunger, and green belts. Unique topics such as the research and production of traditional and non-traditional food sources; ecological issues, including the Canadian seal hunt; genetic engineering; the potential for food supply disaster from pests and adverse climatic conditions stimulate further study.

The authors hope to offer "a unique combination of information written such that the non-scientist may enjoy and learn from it." I feel Part I falls short of their objective. Without some knowledge of nutrition it would be difficult to get through sections like protein biological values and efficiency ratio. However, Part II provides an upbeat, lively narrative from which I learned a lot and felt like exploring some of the topics more fully.

Food, Nutrition and Health deserves to be a reference text for home economists and dietitians who want to update their knowledge. It could be used as an introductory text at the university level or for those interested in international agriculture and global food supply. The book not only meets the needs of the non-scientist but of the university student and professionals.

Reviewed by:
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On Being Father by Frank Ferrara. (1985). New York: Doubleday, 175 pages; paperback $10.95.

On Being Father is an easy-to-read book of a divorced man talking about sharing the responsibilities of parenthood. It is intended for the separated or divorced father who is having trouble keeping his "ship afloat". The author, a divorced father, feels the trouble with modern divorce is that along with losing a wife, a man usually finds himself losing a lot of other things as well — his children, his money, his sanity, his self-respect, and his peace of mind.

This book is a "how-to" book for divorced fathers, not just divorced men. The basic problem is that divorce is so much more than a mere legal matter. Most formerly married men are pretty poorly equipped to be single men again, much less single fathers. They've gotten used to having a wife around — that convenient person who seems to know all about children.

There is no place in our educational system to prepare men for these new responsibilities, unless it is taught in our Family Studies course. The information the author gives could be helpful as a resource in teaching relationships, and also as a self-help for the layman.

The object of this book is to help make the most of the healing process after a divorce, so that wounds heal cleanly and leave the man and his family "as good as new, or rather, better than new." A bibliography would be helpful to provide reference material which is essential for a resource.

Reviewed by:
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The Serpent Beguiled Me And I Ate by Edward J. Dumke. (1986). New York: Doubleday, 241 pages; paperback, $12.95.

The book has been subtitled "A Heavenly Diet for Saints and Sinners;" everyone should be able to glean some insight or truths from its pages. The author, an Episcopal priest and reformed overeater, wrote the book to give dieters hope in their quest for permanent weight loss. He wants his readers to understand their personal relationship to food which should then lead them to choose appropriate ways to shed unwanted pounds.

The title of the book comes from the Bible (Genesis 3:13). Biblical facts and scripture references are sprinkled throughout to illustrate and clarify points. Dumke begins with Seven Lessons — seven ways in which food is most often used in our lives and in the Bible. These lessons help the reader understand foods' symbolic nature and its connection to those things people prize most highly (e.g. love, family, control, money, power). Study questions and exercises are included to help readers develop a personal psychological profile that will give insight into how and why they eat.

The author has developed the Ten Commandments of Good Nutrition — sensible, nutritionally sound guidelines for making a personal diet plan tailored to an individual's tastes and lifestyle. Also included are sections on keeping a food journal; exercise; stress; making nutritious food choices by food color; fasting and diet meditation; keeping a sense of humor while trying to lose weight; handling difficult situations (e.g. holidays, restaurants, mother's apple strudel). Calorie and exercise charts, recipes and a sample 2-week menu should assist the reader in planning a personalized diet and activity program.

An understanding of or interest in the Bible is not necessary to appreciate the teachings, tips, tools and tactics Dumke includes. He does, however, make some interesting correlations and observations based on Biblical material.

The book is very readable and would provide motivational reading for anyone interested in understanding more about food and diet psychology.

Reviewed by:
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Hands on Weaving by Barbara Liebler. (1986). Loveland, CO: Interweave Press, 112 pages; paperback, $6.95.

This is a book for people who have never woven a fabric but would like to try. Beginning with definitions of terms, and diagrams of different types of looms, the author takes the weaver, step-by-step through building and using a frame loom, through using a rigid heddle loom, to finally, using a four-harness loom. Included are instructions on purchasing supplies, preparing the yarns, preparing the loom and weaving various articles such as a pillow, jackets, a tapestry, and scarves. Chapters on trouble shooting, planning a project and choosing a loom provide additional valuable information.

The book is clearly written in an easy-to-read conversational style with excellent instructions, diagrams, and photographs. What readers may object to is the author's assumption that what is learned in one project will be carried over to the next. Reference is made to previous discussions in some cases.

The section that needs improving is the one on "choosing the right fiber". Aside from this problem, the book appears to be satisfactory for those who want to learn how to weave. The process is made to appear simple enough for anyone to handle without facing a large, complex, and intimidating loom. People can begin with this book and gradually work up to more complex projects.

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Abstracts of Current Literature

Family/Consumer Studies

Helping adolescent mothers and their children: An integrated multi-agency approach.

Holman, N., & Arcus, M. (1987)
Family Relations, 36 (2), 119-123.

To describe the structure and the development of a comprehensive, integrated, multi-agency program for adolescent mothers and their children was the main purpose of this paper. The Tupper Mini School was the result of the combined efforts of the Vancouver School Board, the Vancouver Y.W.C.A., the city of Vancouver Health Department, and the province of British Columbia Ministry of Social Services and Housing. Goals of the program included providing education up to Grade 12, health, social and life skills; and day care for the children while the mothers are in class. The school opened in 1982 with 12 students and has since expanded to accept 20 students. Students, ranging in age from 14 to 20, must meet certain eligibility requirements, however, criteria are more subjective than in other educational institutions. The success of the school has been measured according to the average completion rate, which is 65%. The authors suggest that this measurement may not be accurate, as one student dropped out to have another child (two measurements of failure) but completed her education elsewhere. Another measurement of success is that similar programs have been opened in two other British Columbia communities. Some of the practices and procedures of this program could be used in smaller scale programs such as adolescent parenting programs.

The challenge of sexual abuse: Protection and therapy in a child welfare setting.

McDonough, H., & Love, A.J. (1987)
Child Welfare, 66 (3), 225-235.

This paper provides a description and evaluation of the Sexual Abuse Treatment Project (SATP) in Toronto which was the result of a Children's Aid Society Foundation grant in 1983. The CAS provided the grant in order to establish the first sexual abuse treatment program in Canada and to establish a comprehensive treatment resource for sexually abused children, their families, and the offenders. The treatment staff, consisting of a supervisor, a social worker, a child care worker, and three child therapists called upon when necessary, treated 103 clients during the 18-month demonstration period. The objectives of the Toronto SATP were to provide services to prevent further sexual abuse to the victim, to the non-offending parent for the victim's future protection, and to the offender to assist in changing behavior and attitudes. Other services included outreach and intake services, individual counselling, individual therapy, art and play therapy, dyad counselling, and group work. Because evaluation of the program showed that therapy could be provided by a child welfare organization and that this structure was beneficial to the therapist, SATP has moved from a demonstration project to an agency core program. Therapy by SATP includes motivating high-risk clients, increasing the mother's ability to protect her children, and enhancing the mother-child relationship. The encouraging results of the program show a real need for more programs in other communities.

Adolescent mothers, stress, and prevention.

Schinke, S.P., Barth, R.P., Gilchrist, L.D., & Maxwell, J.S. (1986)
Journal of Human Stress, 12 (4), 162-167.

Seventy-nine adolescent mothers took part in a research project to determine whether intervention could help adolescent mothers learn the skills necessary for coping with stress. The authors proposed two phases of intervention, a cognitive preparation phase and a skills acquisition phase. All subjects were enrolled in a public high school continuation program and were allowed to chose whether they wanted to take part in the experimental group ($n = 37$) or the control group ($n = 42$). All mothers completed pretest, posttest, and 3-month follow-up measurements. The Coping Skills Preventive Intervention (CSPI) was led by graduate social workers who demonstrated coping skills and the group practised. Pretest data was used as covariates, and posttests and follow-up data were analysed using MANOVA and ANOVA analysis. Posttest results showed that the subjects in the experimental group had higher scores in measures of social support, cognitive performance, paraphrasing, delaying, direct request, and negotiation. The 3-month follow-up showed higher scores for the experimental group in measures of social support, cognitive performance, parenting ability, child care self-efficacy, and psychological well-being. These results indicate the viability of stress management intervention for adolescent mothers. The authors recommend further study and measurement refinement.

Global perceived stress level as a moderator of the relationship between negative life events and depression.

Kuiper, N.A., Olinger, L.J., & Lyons, L.M. (1986)
Journal of Human Stress, 12 (4), 149-153.

This Canadian study was designed to test the hypothesis that individuals who score high on a global perceived stress measurement instrument and experience a large amount of negative life events simultaneously will show an increased level of depression symptomology whereas those who have low perceived stress scores will show less depression. One hundred and twenty introductory psychology students at the University of Western Ontario participated in the study, for which they received a research credit. Assessment instruments used were the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI), a 21-item self-report measuring various aspects of depression, the Perceived Stress Scale (PSS), a 14-item self-report measuring global perceived stress, and the Life Experience Survey (LES), a self-report of life changes in the past year. No results support the proposal that depression and perceived stress are correlated more highly than perceived stress and life experiences. An increase in depression level as negative life change scores increase is the significant effect of LES when a regression analysis was done. A regression analysis with LES and PSS showed the moderating effect of global stress on the relationship between depression and negative life events. The patterns found in these results appear to suggest that certain persons are more at risk of becoming depressed because of their perceived levels of stress. The authors suggest more studies are needed, particularly those longitudinal in design.

Supplementary listing of articles

The problem of gender in family therapy theory. Hare-Mustin, R.T. (1987). *Family Process, 26* (1), 15-28.

Couples at risk for transmission of alcoholism: Protective influences. Isaacs, M.B., Leon, G.H., & Kline, M. (1987). *Family Process, 26* (1), 111-130.

Infertility and sexual dysfunctions: A family affair. Mendelberg, H.E. (1986). *Family Therapy, 13* (3), 257-264.

Enduring ties: Older adults' parental role and responsibilities. Blieszner, R., & Mancini, J.A. (1987). *Family Relations, 36* (2), 176-180.

Family dynamics for caregivers: An educational model. Couper, D.P., & Sheehan, N.W. (1987). *Family Relations, 36* (2), 181-185.

Relationships among negative life events, physiological reactivity, and healthy symptomology. Cohen, L.H., Simons, R.F., Rose, S.C., McGowan, J., & Zelson, M.F. (1986). *Journal of Human Stress, 12* (4), 142-148.

Submitted by
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MSc graduate student

Food/Nutrition

Diet and prevention of cancer: The state of knowledge and current dietary recommendations.

Bright-See, E. (1987)
Journal of the Canadian Dietetic Association, 48, 13-20.

The purpose of this paper was to provide an overview of past, present, and future studies relating diet and cancer. The types of studies used to provide information concerning current hypotheses of this relationship were outlined. The relative strengths of laboratory and descriptive epidemiological studies as well as human intervention trials were discussed.

An extensive literature review, citing 70 references, provided the current knowledge relating dietary components to the initiation and promotion of cancers. The discussion included information on energy, fats, salt, and alcohol. Other dietary variables which have demonstrated a negative association with cancer mortality were discussed. The dietary components reviewed which have a possible protective effect include dietary fibre, vitamins A, C, and E, and selenium. A summary of current recommendations or dietary guidelines was provided by comparing the guidelines set forth by different groups concerned with public health.

Mineral balances of men and women consuming high fiber diets with complex or simple carbohydrate.

Hallfrisch, J., Powell, A., Carafelli, C., Rusa, S., & Prather, E.S. (1987)
Journal of Nutrition, 117, 48-55.

Mineral balances of 20 men, 19 premenopausal women and 13 postmenopausal women were determined while consuming self-selected diets or high-fiber diets with either complex or simple carbohydrates. Minerals investigated included calcium, copper, iron, magnesium, manganese, and zinc. Dietary intake information was gathered using detailed food records and duplicate meal samples. Mineral outputs were determined through urine and fecal analysis.

Self-selected calcium intakes were 97% of the Recommended Daily Allowance (RDA) for men, 82% for premenopausal women and 68% for postmenopausal women. All groups were in negative balance. When consuming high complex carbohydrate diets with calcium levels at or above the RDA, all three groups were still in negative balance. When simple carbohydrate replaced the complex carbohydrate in the diet, average fecal loss of calcium increased.

Copper intakes of the three groups were below the recommended level when consuming a self-selected diet. When on the high sugar diet, premenopausal women went into negative balance despite average intakes.

Iron intakes were above the RDA for men and postmenopausal women, while those for premenopausal women were about 66% of their RDA. All groups were in balance since the premenopausal women received an iron supplement.

Magnesium and zinc intakes were below the RDAs for all three groups. Subjects were in balance for manganese during the self-selected diets. Magnesium balances were generally negative regardless of diet.

The authors concluded that after a 6-week adjustment period, high-fiber diets had no adverse effects on balances of zinc, copper, iron or manganese. Diets high in sugar appear to adversely affect copper and manganese balance.

Factors associated with low birthweight in an inner-city population: The role of financial problems.

Binsacca, D.B., Ellis, J., Martin, D.G., & Petitti, D.B. (1987)
American Journal of Public Health, 77, 505-506.

This case-control study was undertaken to identify modifiable factors associated with low birthweight and variables predictive of risk in an urban southern Californian population. Cases ($N = 278$) included singleton deliveries weighing 500-2500 g and the controls ($N = 287$) were selected from deliveries weighing more than 2500 g. For the purposes of this study, "financial problems" were defined as any record of financial difficulties or hardship reported during pregnancy, such as inability to pay rent or buy food, and unemployment of self or partner.

Analysis of data indicated a seven-fold increase in risk of delivering a low birthweight infant in women who experienced financial problems during the pregnancy. Once other potential risk factors were controlled for, the relative risk for such a women to deliver a low birthweight infant was 5.9 times greater than that of other women. This risk was nearly tripled in women who smoked.

The most important finding of the study is the magnitude of the association of financial problems with delivery of low birthweight infants. While there were limitations to this study, the authors have deemed financial problems to be a potentially useful indicator when assessing risk for low birthweight. Therefore, it has been incorporated into their risk screening protocol for prenatal patients at their first clinic visit.

Dietary intake and symptoms of anorexia nervosa in female university dancers.

Evers, C.L. (1987)
Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 87, 66-68.

Measurement and evaluation of the dietary intake and symptoms of anorexia nervosa in a group of female dancers were undertaken in this study. The study population consisted of 21 students enrolled in upper-level university dance classes and 29 students not currently enrolled in dance classes.

Analysis of a 3-day food record revealed that 71.4% of the dancers and 69% of the controls consumed less than two-thirds of the Recommended Dietary Allowances (RDA) for at least one nutrient. The mean intake of iron was less than two-thirds of the RDA for both groups. The percentage of dancers and controls consuming less than two-thirds of the RDA for energy was 28.6% and 10.3%, respectively. Subjects consuming less than two-thirds of the RDAs for three or more nutrients included 23.8% of the dancers and 24.1% of the controls. Some type of supplement was taken by 47.7% of the dancers and 41.7% of the controls. It was apparent that more than half of the subjects consuming diets low in iron were not taking supplementary iron.

All subjects completed the Eating Attitudes Test (EAT), a 40-item questionnaire which assesses seven symptom areas of anorexia nervosa. The percentage of subjects who scored in the range symptomatic of anorexia nervosa was significantly higher in the dance group (33.3%) than in the control group (13.8%). The true incidence of this eating disorder could not be determined in this study due to the lack of a clinical psychiatry interview. The authors stated that all college women would benefit from nutrition screening to ensure that they are consuming adequate energy and nutrients, with emphasis given to iron and calcium.

Associations between smoking and body weight in the US population: Analysis of NHANES II.

Albanes, D., Jones, Y., Micozzi, M.S. & Mattson, M.E. (1987)
American Journal of Public Health, 77, 439-444.

The association between smoking history and several anthropometric measures and caloric intake was examined using data (self-reported smoking behaviour, height, weight, triceps and subscapular skinfolds, 24-hour recall, and activity level) from the Second National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES II). The analyses involved 12,103 adults aged 19 years and older.

Of the study population, 41% were non-smokers, 24% were former smokers, and 34% smoked cigarettes. Current cigarette smokers were found to be taller and lighter than other subjects. Current smokers exhibited lower Body Mass Indices (were leaner) than non-smokers. No significant differences were found between groups in terms of caloric intakes.

The findings that cigarette smokers weigh less and are learner than persons of the same sex and age who never smoked confirms results of previous investigators. This study showed a near linear decrease in body weight and fatness associated with an increase in duration of cigarette consumption, even after accounting for age. Regular cigarette smokers tended to gain less weight after age 25 than did non-smokers. From these analyses, a decreased caloric intake is not the cause of underweight among smokers.

Several implications of this study were outlined by the authors. They state that the potential exists for tobacco use to strongly confound epidemiologic studies investigating the association between body weight and development of chronic disease. Any future investigations of the relationship between anthropometry and morbidity or mortality should account for current and past tobacco use. Another implication concerns desirable body weights as derived from actuarial analyses which did not account for smoking status. For this reason, the authors question the validity of such studies with respect to desirable body weights. Their findings suggest that it may not be an increased leanness alone which has led to increased mortality, but rather an increase in smoking duration coupled with increased leanness.

Supplementary listing of articles

Factors affecting breastfeeding among women of Mexican origin or descent in Los Angeles. Scrimshaw, S.C.M., Engle, P.L., Arnold, L., & Haynes, K. (1987). *American Journal of Public Health, 77,* 467-470.

Habitual daily energy expenditure and activity levels of lean and adult-onset and child-onset obese women. Blair, D. & Buskirk, E.R. (1987). *American Journal of Clinical Nutrition, 45,* 540-550.

Five years of Nutrition Month in Manitoba's native communities. Marchessault, G., & Musik-Rogers, D. (1987). *Journal of the Canadian Dietetic Association, 48,* 39-41.

A checklist for evaluating health information. McKenzie, J.F. (1987). *Journal of School Health, 57,* 31-32.

A synthesis of research on nutrition education at the elementary school level. Weiss, E.H., & Kien, L. (1987). *Journal of School Health, 57,* 8-13.

Calories and energy expenditure in carcinogenesis: Conference report. Simopoulos, A.P. (1987). *Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 87,* 92-97.

Submitted by
Laurie A. Wadsworth, MSc

Textiles/Clothing

Clothing and personal equipment used by fruit growers when handling pesticides.

Keeble, V., Norton, M., & Drake, C. (1987)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 5 (2), 1-7.

Fruit growers and workers were surveyed to determine: the types of protective clothing and equipment they wore while mixing and applying a pesticide; and their knowledge of the pesticide's hazards, and relationships between the knowledge of hazards, demographic data, and clothing or equipment choice. A questionnaire was developed to elicit information concerning: demographic data on subject and associated orchards; clothing and equipment chosen when working with a pesticide; and subject's knowledge of a pesticide's hazards. Different pesticides were rated on a scale from "not very hazardous" to "very hazardous". There were 175 male workers and/or owners ranging in age from 18-84 years from Virginia who responded. Survey data collected suggested fruit growers and workers in this area often did not wear items of recommended clothing or equipment when handling a pesticide. The majority of the sample normally wore work shirts and pants. A statistically significant relationship between the use of protective clothing and equipment and subject's knowledge of a pesticide's hazard was identified: as the hazard rating increased the subject indicated increased usage of protective clothing and equipment. These results suggest agencies and organizations affiliated with orchard owners and workers should place greater emphasis on the education of pesticide hazards and necessities of protective gear.

Freedom in dress: Legal sanctions.

Maher, P.M., & Slocum, A. (1987)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 5 (4), 14-21.

The aim of this study was to determine the extent of judges' sensitivity to traditional or changing social values when making their decisions. Specifically, this study: identified defendants' dress choices resulting in legal sanctions; examined the legal basis for these sanctions; and specified situations in which the sanctions were upheld or were incorrectly applied. Sources for this study were 51 federal and state cases, from 1879 to 1984 which involved legal sanctions. Cases involved individuals who either were arrested or denied city permits because their dress was considered inappropriate. Cases were categorized into six groups as to the type of dress worn or the situational setting. A judgement by researchers was made as to whether the judicial decision had been influenced by traditional or emerging social values. This study showed incorrectly applied sanctions were identified in 61% of the cases reviewed. Judges had to determine the permissibility of dress by interpreting laws that did not describe dress specifically. It was felt a reliance on precident setting cases and responsiveness to changing social values influenced this interpretation. This study suggests freedom of dress will continue to be subject to some restrictions for the "public good".

Mechanical and physical properties of suiting fabrics that affect seam head size in enclosed seams.

Moore, C., Gurel, L., & Marshall, M.H. (1986)
Home Economics Research Journal, 15 (1), 57-63.

The purpose of this study was to determine the effects of flexural rigidity, fibre content, fabric thickness, and fabric grain on the seam head size in enclosed seams. A seam head was defined as the distance from the stitching line to the apex of the fold, as commonly found at the ends of collars and lapels, pocket welts, and other faced areas in tailored garments. Fabrics commonly used for tailored garments were studied including three 100% wool twill fabrics, and three wool/polyester blends of twill weave. Seams were constructed with each fabric using a lockstitch 25mm in length and a regulation seam allowance of 15mm. Cross sections from each specimen were cut 25mm from each end. A photographic process was developed to measure resulting seam head sizes. Results showed fabric thickness, fibre content, and flexural rigidity significantly altered seam head size in all samples. Interaction between fibre content and grain also significantly affected seam head size. Thickness, fibre content, and grain are fabric parameters that can easily be assessed by home sewers and garment manufacturers and should be considered by both groups during garment construction. Possible solutions to the problems of distortion due to fabric thickness, fibre content, and grain in enclosed seams are suggested and can be adopted by both home sewers and manufacturers.

Archaeological textile evidence for historic costume study: Louisiana Tiger Rifles 1861.

Deegan, A. (1987)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 5 (4), 23-28.

The purpose of this study was to analyze fabric remains from the grave of an American Civil War Confederate soldier of the Louisiana Tiger Rifles, killed in 1861 in Virginia. Resulting information was used to provide a complete description of the unit's uniform. Layered fabric samples measuring 10.2cm were examined to determine color, fibre content, and fabric construction. Resulting data were assessed and reconstruction of garment types in the grave was possible. A dark silk satin weave cravat was worn in a bow over a blue wool, twill weave, unlined jacket with red wool, plain weave tape edge-binding. An undyed, wool, plain weave shirt, probably stiffened in the placket with a hair-cloth interfacing, was worn underneath. Only protein fibres were found, but high amounts of acid and iron in the soil may have caused the destruction of cellulose fibres. Although this research did not define the exact silhouette of the uniform, fabric samples of this nature must not be overlooked as they could yield valuable information on clothing that is unavailable from other sources.

Supplementary listing of articles

Moisture induced changes in fabric structure as evidenced by air permeability measurements. Wehner, J., Miller, B., & Rebenfeld, L. (1987). *Textile Research Journal, 57* (5), 247-255.

Fine structure of cashmere and superfine Merino wool fibers. Tester, D. (1987). *Textile Research Journal, 57* (4), 213-219.

Selling clothes: Textile and clothing advertisements in the public record office. Jubb, M. (1986). *Textile History, 17* (2), 197-202.

The effectiveness and cleanability of antierobial finishes on carpet tiles. Brumbelow, J. (1987). *Textile Chemist and Colorist, 19* (4), 27-31.

Daily clothing selection: Interrelationships among motivating factors. Kwan, Y.H. (1987). *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 5* (2), 21-28.

Dress and physical attractiveness of women in job interviews. Johnson, K., & Roach-Higgins, M.E. (1987). *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 5* (3), 1-9.

Submitted by
Sheri McBride, BA
MSc graduate student

New Developments

... In Products

New Salt Product

A new salt product, created for people who like the flavor of salt but want to cut down on sodium intake, has been announced by Canadian Salt Company Limited. *Half Salt* is a free-running mixture of iodized salt and potassium chloride with only half the sodium content of regular table salt — 200 milligrams per one-gram serving. Its introduction corresponds to the current trend towards a generally healthier lifestyle.

There is no discernible difference between the flavor of the new product and regular table salt, according to Mr. King, Canadian Salt Company Vice-president. While it can be used in place of conventional table salt by people on normal diets, it is not recommended for those on sodium- or potassium-free diets.

For more information: Contact Jane Hope (416) 598-8988.

Products Stress Safety

Born To Love, a Canadian mail-order company, has developed an impressive range of safety equipment designed to allow children as much freedom as possible while helping to protect them from dangers hidden in every home. Four recently introduced products are: Plug Lock, a child-proof plug cover that prevents removal of two engaged plugs; Safety Mate, a spring-action device that eliminates the hazard of exposed metal prongs; Potty Lock, a self-locking device that fits all standard toilets; and Velcro Quik Lock that works where cabinet latches cannot.

To order: Or for a free catalogue, write Born to Love, Safety Dept., 21 Potsdam Road, Ste. 61, Downsview, ON M3N 1N3.

... In Trends

New Appetite for Textile Designs

The long-standing reluctance of Ontario's textile manufacturers to employ local design talent has discouraged many textile designers looking for careers. The time may now be right for designers to play a role. The lack of communication and cooperation among manufacturers, schools, and designers — one of the chief causes of the stalemate — appears to be coming to an end. And many designers are simply finding ways to bypass the industry that has ignored them.

Traditionally fashion trends develop in Europe and then migrate to the rest of the world. Typically, Ontario textile mills purchase designs at European expositions. Clearly, under this system the deck is stacked against Ontario textile designers looking for careers in the field. To graduating design students it has appeared that they have been trained to work in an industry that does not want them. The schism in the relationship between the industry and the schools has been a disappointment to both sides, however. 'Textile programs here are not producing graduates who understand the technical, mechanical, mathematical, and physical properties involved in the production of fabric,' complains John Palles, an English-trained designer who has worked for Artex Woollens of Cambridge, Ontario.

Dr. Ted Hallman, head of Textiles at the Ontario College of Art in Toronto, admits that until recently there was an 'arty' approach to textile design at OCA that did not prepare students for employment in industry, but that is now changing. Hamil Textile Limited has become a tremendously enthusiastic force within the Ontario textile picture, working closely with local colleges, particularly with Ryerson Polytechnical Institute. The firm sponsors a scholarship program offered to high school students.

Several Ontario designers have started their own small manufacturing operations in order to see their designs worn. Gunnel Hag (Trees) and Valerie Knapp (Viveries) are just two of a fairly large group of individuals who have found alternative routes to realizing their textile designs as marketable products. They have taken the initiative and moved into the field where they have seen a gap. To accomplish this requires a combination of astute business sense and the stamina to promote one's product energetically: an independent textile business is rarely a lucrative venture. The sole existing federal program that does potentially serve small textile design ventures is the Federal Business Development Bank, a crown corporation that acts as a term loan lender for fixed assets such as machinery, equipment, buildings, etc. If Ontario textile designers are to take advantage of the opportunities available in the industry, they may find that they have to make some creative concessions. But Barbara Klunder, illustrator and cartoonist, looks at the situation this way: 'Limitation can be a pain in the neck or a challenge. Consider it a challenge.'

Source: Excerpts from Crinion, E., (1987, Spring), Making designs on Ontario's textile industry, *Ontario Craft*, p. 8-12.

Improvement in Infant Feeding Practices

The paper "Infant Feeding Practices" describes the infant feeding practices in Toronto (1984-1985) and the changes that have occurred since a 1978 study. It focusses on two issues: milk feeding and the introduction of solid foods. The paper also describes the sources of infant nutrition information the mothers had access to before the 1984-85 study.

Some of the changes were: 88% of women initiated breastfeeding (71% in '78); 23% of mothers who breastfed stopped by the beginning of the 3rd month (30% stopped in 1st month in '78); median time of introduction to solids was now 4 months compared to 2 months. Eighty-nine percent of the mothers indicated they would not introduce unmodified cow's milk into their infant's diet before 6 months of age (35% of mothers had introduced either skim, 2% or whole milk by 4 months of age in '78). However, similar to the observations of the '78 study only 51% of the infants were still eating infant cereals at 12 months.

Source: Tanaka, P., & Anderson, G.H., (1987, Spring). Infant feeding practices in Metropolitan Toronto. *In Touch*, p. 2-3.

Automobile Insurance

From 1980 to 1985, car insurance premiums jumped 65.5% in Canada, and experts have started referring to a "crisis" in the insurance business as costs continue to soar. This makes smart shopping for insurance more important than ever, says an article in the 1987 *Autosource, Canadian Consumer* magazine's annual automotive issue.

"The best way to tackle the car insurance issue is to do your homework and purchase only what you really need," says the fifth edition of the popular car guide. Knowing where to cut corners in your coverage without leaving yourself vulnerable takes some study, but can substantially reduce your premiums.

If you're driving an old car, for example, there may be little point to carrying collision insurance. Or you may want to increase your deductible to bring your premium down.

Another tip: If you have a friend who pays a group insurance rate and you meet the requirements — age, sex, driving record — for eligibility in the group, you are entitled by law to the same rate.

Extended warranties are another hot issue in the car world. As car makers square off in the battle to provide the most generous warranty, does the car buyer really stand to gain? It depends on how the manufacturer interprets the fine print, says the 1987 *Autosource.*

Source: Hirshhorn, S. (1987). Insurance on wheels. *Canadian Consumers' Autosource, 17*(4), pp. 4-10.

Changing Times, Changing Families

There is a wide diversity of families. It makes sense to look not at what families are but at what they do. In this, they have not changed greatly through the centuries, despite changes in forms, lifestyles, and the technologies that surround them.

Families nurture. Families support one another physically, economically, and emotionally. Families share and work together. Family members are committed to one another, and their commitments are only broken under extraordinary circumstances. Within families, we can love, bicker, care, argue, defend, fight, sympathize, or envy, secure in the knowledge that the relationship is durable enough to endure many trials.

All the changes — shorter working hours, greater prosperity, smaller families, more lifestyle options, feminism, minority rights, availability of birth control methods and divorce — helped to build, and came about as a result of, a new ethic of self-fulfillment. What will your family's portrait look like 20 years from now? Chances are that it will look quite different from a family portrait taken 20 years ago. The most striking change will probably be a decline in the number of children. Families today are having fewer children, and couples are waiting longer than ever before to have children. Why don't people want kids anymore? Why have all the children gone?

It has been said that "Kids are inconvenient, expensive, a lot of trouble, a damper on your career, and bad for your sex life." Despite the high divorce rate, people keep getting married — and remarried.

The rising divorce rate and acceptance of extra-marital sex has resulted in a great number of single-parent families. The overwhelming majority of single parents are women, and a great number — 50% — live below the poverty line. They are poor because of the generally disadvantaged economic condition of women, insufficient or defaulted support payments, and lack of vocational and training opportunities. The stresses to which all families are subject tend to be even greater for single-parent families than for others.

Some people form families without children at all. Some couples choose not to have children; other's can't. And it isn't uncommon for elderly people to live together. In some cases they form bonds tight enough to call a family. A future family portrait will not only show fewer children but older adults.

It is without question a difficult time for families as we all cope with the tremendous changes of our lives. So many forces seem to be driving us apart. Yet something within the human spirit craves the companionship, support, and sharing which families, at their best, offer. To counteract the impersonal nature of our high-tech, "leisured" society, we find we need families more and more.

Source: Excerpt from "Families in Transition." (1987, March). *Transition*, p. 3-7.

. . . In Ideas

CDA Endorses Link Between Diet and Cancer Prevention

The Canadian Dietetic Association has taken the position that positive evidence exists to suggest certain foods play a role in the cause and prevention of cancer. "Although there is no conclusive evidence to say you can prevent cancer by choosing the right diet, evidence is strong enough to issue dietary recommendations to the public," said Heather Nielsen, the association's president.

"We have analysed key nutritional studies to determine that links exist between diet and cancer, and are prepared to make specific recommendations to the public based on those studies." Ms. Nielsen released a Canadian Dietetic Association position paper which noted a connection between high fat consumption and breast, colon and prostrate cancers. "We recommend that fat consumption from all sources should not be more than 30 percent of a person's daily diet," said Ms. Nielsen. "Many Canadians today actually consume more than 40 percent of their diet in fats."

The position paper stated studies show links between salted and smoked meats and stomach cancer. Alochol consumption, especially by smokers, was associated with mouth, larynx, esophagus and respiratory track cancers.

Ms. Nielsen said the association's dietary recommendations are in keeping with general good eating habits, and will contribute to overall good health.

The complete Position Paper will be published, in *The Journal of the Canadian Dietetic Association*, Vol. 48, No. 3.

Source: News Release (June 10, 1987).

Children's Allowance

Economist and single parent, Cheryl Hall, and Milo Wiebe, financial planner have a lot of advice for parents about how to teach children about money. Hall thinks that children should be given a weekly allowance and that it should be tied to responsibilities. If children don't do their chores, their allowances should be cut back. Hall feels strongly that children must learn early a strict cause and effect relationship between responsibility and reward. She also encourages childern to start bank accounts, and when there is enough money in the account to buy a mutual fund. Children can follow their investments in the newspaper. She has her children assisting her in a mail-order children's toys business.

Wiebe's children are on savings and investment programs similar to Hall's. Children should learn to invest 10% of all the money they make, 30% if they still live at home, he says. Parents can also help their children by investing their family allowance cheques.

To get more inforamtion on money management for children Hall and Wiebe suggest parents start with their local library, and corporate affairs department and their own bank, savings and loans association or credit union. Many of these publish their own educational booklets and games on money and consumer spending for children, and some financial institutions even have special children's accounts. Also, upon request, the Canadian Bankers' Association will mail its activity booklets on money education. And parents can take heart that schools across Canada are actively discussing making courses in financial management compulsory. Money management, however, isn't the only skill needed for success, Hall points out. The possession of such social skills as good manner and the ability to take on leadership roles and to operate in the political arena all help people gain control of their lives. Money may not be everything, but Hall concludes: "It's so important. It buys you time and peace of mind."

Source: Excerpt from Johnson Smith, N. (1987, April). Piggy bucks. *Your Money*, pp. 26, 73.

Aging and Nutrition

Consideration of the role of nutrition as a factor in human aging is important for health care professionals. Nutrition is an important factor in growth and development, health maintenance, disease prevention, and recuperation from illness. It has been shown to play a role in extending life spans of laboratory animals where genetic, environmental and disease conditions are controlled. Nutrition interacts with the aging processes in a variety of ways.

As the elderly segment of our population continues to increase in numbers, resources must be put into disease prevention and research programs. We still have not identified changes in normal nutrient requirements with aging nor do we know, in measurable terms, the impact of disease on nutrient requirements in older people. The interrelationships between nutrients, health, disease, environment, socioeconomic status, climate, medications, genetics, etc. are open for investigation. Recognition of the unique needs of our elderly citizens in an important priority to incorporate in the training of the basic research and social scientists and the health care practitioners of the future.

Source: Excerpts from Chernoff, R. (1987, March/April). Aging and nutrition. *Nutrition Today*, p. 4-11.

Preventing Childhood Obesity

Dr. Stanley Zlotkin, Associate Professor of Paediatrics and Nutrition at Toronto's Hospital for Sick Children, Dr. Abe Worenklein, a Montreal Clinical Psychologist and Jennifer De Grandis, a dietitian-nutritionist in the Department of Clinical Nutrition at the Hospital for Sick Children offer their advice on how to help overweight children and what food habits to promote to prevent obesity. "Properly fed children," he says, "do not become overweight." Asked to be more specific about the diet of a properly fed child, Dr. Zlotkin mentions the basics of balanced nutrition. But he is quick to point out that appropriate quantities will vary since "every child is born with a genetically determined metabolism. The way the body metabolizes nutrients varies considerably from child to child." If a plump baby has not started to slim down by age 3 or 4, parental concern is justified. "But unless a child is extremely overweight," says Dr. Zlotkin, we don't advocate weight loss diets because we don't want to interfere with linear (height) growth. We aim to have weight remain stable while height increases so children, in effect, grow into their weight."

Dr. Zlotkin emphasizes that parents should not force society's obsession with extreme thinness onto childen. When in doubt, they should consult the child's physician. If a child's weight does need to be watched, parents should seek help from a doctor or medical clinic. Commercial weight loss clinics should be avoided, he cautions, because their empahsis is on weight loss, which "in most cases is not appropriate for young children." Dr. Worenklein says, "Even when over-weight children or adolescents, do slim down, it's often difficult for them to change their self-concept, to see themselves as slim instead of fat. The best way to avoid such problems is to intervene when a child is still a pre-schooler." For parents who want to be sure their kids learn the right habits, Jennifer De Grandis lists 15 slimming suggestions.

Source: Muransky, L., (1987, May). Fat is not healthy. How to prevent childhood obesity. *Today's Parent*, p. 12-14.

Caffeine

Current evidence leads to the conclusion that the consumption of approxiamtely 450 mg of caffeine per day does not pose a threat with regard to serious health effects, including undesirable behavior, hypertension, heart disease, cancer, or birth defects. Its undeniable physiological effects, increased alertness, anxiety, respiratory stimulation, and irritability may be viewed by consumers as desirable or undesirable and can be avoided or not by individual decision.

Because of the limited ability of the unborn and new-born to metabolize caffeine, there is increased incentive to limit caffeine intake during pregnancy and lactation.

This paper also includes a table with amounts of caffeine in various food sources (coffee, tea, cola drinks, cocoa products, medications).

Source: Caffeine — A perspective on current concerns. (1987, May). *National Institute of Nutrition Review*.

Getting Welfare Recipients Back to Work

In recent years Canada has experienced a major increase in the proportion of welfare recipients who are willing and able to work. Maintaining employable people on welfare represents a loss in Canada's productive capacity, increased public expenditure and a deterioration in individual and social well-being.

An initiative combining the efforts of the private, voluntary and government sectors is being launched to find out how best to help welfare recipients overcome obstacles to finding employment. Funded through the "National Labour Market Innovations Programs" of Employment and Immigration Canada, the project group has begun to gather information on what is now being done to improve employment prospects for people on welfare. The three organizations participating are Coopers and Lybrand Consulting Group, Policy Concepts and the Canadian Council on Social Development (CCSD).

The sponsors want to find the best ways to improve the employability of welfare recipients and to test and evaluate these approaches through a set of demonstration projects. Evaluation of these projects will establish, in the words of Coopers and Lybrand Vice-President Pat Lafferty, "what works best for whom, and why." An information base will be built to assist governments, welfare administrators, project sponsors and others in improving existing programs. Lafferty is joined by Keith Norton, a partner with Policy Concepts, and Terry Hunsley, executive director of the CCSD, in leading the project. They believe that this project is an opportunity for an independent group to make useful recommendations to government which could brighten employment prospects for those now receiving social assistance.

Source: Excerpts from Project to find ways to get welfare recipients back to work. (1987, Spring/Summer). *Social Development Overview*, 4(3).

Salad Bars, Not Necessarily Diet Food

Why is it that when you contemplate going on a diet, visions of cottage cheese and salads dance in your head? Probably because it is commonly assumed that salads are lower in calories and fat than other meals. However, a recent study showed the calorie content of salads prepared by customers at a self-serve salad bar, ranged from 250 to 1043 calories per salad and that 60% to 70% of the calories were derived from fat. In the same study, 12 salads and 12 hot meals were collected at random and compared. The calorie content was similar, not lower for salads as you might expect. The truth is, that items such as cheese, croutons, and salad dressings push up the calorie count.

Nutritionists recommend that we reduce the fat intake of our diets to no more than 30% of total daily calories. Here's a simple way to determine how much 30% is. Multiply the number of calories you consume in a day by .3. Divide this by 9 (there are 9 calories in each gram of fat.). For example 2,000 calories multiplied by .3 = 600 ÷ 9 = 66.6. If your daily calorie intake is 2,000, you should not have more than 67 grams of fat per day. Fortunately, with beef, most of the fat is visible fat, which can easily be trimmed off. What we have to watch is the "hidden fat" consumed in vegetable oils, salad dressings and fried foods.

For more information: Contact Barb Holland, Public Relations Co-ordinator, Beef Information Centre, (416) 766-2787.

. . . In Publications

Booklets for Good Health

Participaction now carries a broad range of booklets in three areas: health and fitness, which includes 12 pamphlets on subjects ranging from back care to nutrition; health and safety, where each of the nine manuals is a unique guide to the care and treatment of common worksite injuries (alcoholism to foot care); the wellness way library contains guides to show patients and employees how to reduce six common health risks (smoking risks to breast health). Health and fitness, and health and safety booklets are $1.25 each. Wellness guides are $.45 each.

To order: Catalogues and order forms are available from Participaction, Box 64, 40 Dundas St. W., Suite 220, Toronto, ON M5G 2C2, (416) 977-7467.

National Film Board Films

School in the Bush, narrated by a Cree teenager, is a gentle documentary, introducing viewers to the Cree way of life and communicates some of the jarring dichotomies experienced by native children in the white man's world. This film is comprised of material shot in the Mistassini area of northern Quebec, just before the official acceptance of native input into curricula for native children. In it, a young Cree woman reflects on a unique experience: a September-to-April winter spent not in a white school, but with her family during a traditional Cree winter in the bush. *School in the Bush* focusses on the rhythms of this hunting culture's way of life. This beautiful film clearly portrays Cree values, culture, and schooling. It will stimulate an examination of one's own culture, and the discussion of cultures based on different value systems from one's own. It can also evoke serious reflection on optimal learning experiences and on what "learning" is.

A Handle on Health shows how the burden on women and children in the developing world can be lifted by actively involving the community in a new approach to the delivery of safe water. The projects featured in the film — in Ethiopia, Malaysia, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Thailand — demonstrate how simple, durable handpumps can be an effective solution. The film also shows how women, the Third World's primary drawers of water, are helping to ensure a safe, uninterrupted supply by taking control of water delivery, and maintaining and manufacturing their own handpumps. Screening time is 27 minutes. (Ce film est disponible en français sous le litre: L'Artisanne de la santé).

Feeding and Clothing China's Millions provides a rare glimpse of a way of life few Westerners have seen. The film's focus is on life on the North China Plain, until recently plagued by floods and droughts and characterized by extreme poverty and starvation. The film shows a co-operative and conserver society in action. Screening time is 14 minutes.

All three films are available in 16mm, ¾", VHS or Beta.

To order: Contact your local National Film Board (NFB) Office or NFB, P.O. Box 6100, Montreal, PQ H3C 3H5.

On the Job

Profile of a Home Economist as a Translator

Louise Boyer

The profession of home economics can lead to a wide range of exciting work experiences. That seems to be the case for me. My career has evolved, quite naturally, from different assignments in Montréal, in the areas of food demonstration, recipe testing, sensory evaluation, and food product development for Gaz Métropolitain, Catelli, FBI Foods, and Bromatech.

Following my move to Oakville, Ontario, 8 years ago, I worked for General Foods. There, I was responsible for French Consumer Services as well as for translation of recipes. This experience proved to be valuable for my next venture. When I decided to try it "on my own" in Toronto, I contacted a home economist and client from my days in Montréal to offer my services for recipe translation, and that was the beginning of my new business in translation. Being bilingual in Toronto certainly proved to be an advantage.

In home economics circles, the word quickly got around that there was a French home economist doing recipe translation. For me, this was the natural thing to do. With my bilingual experience in food, I was well prepared to enter this new field. Today, my clients know that can trust me for using the proper terms for the Québec market. Recipe translation led to other food-related translation such as ingredient lists, package copy, instruction manuals, marketing copy, and press releases. Major Canadian food and appliance companies use my services on a regular basis, as well as free-lance home economists. My home economics background represents an added bonus for my clients. While doing a translation, I sometimes spot errors in recipes that another translator would not see.

Regular trips to Québec keep me informed of the latest food trends and shopping habits, although I must admit "Québecois are not as trendy as Torontonians". While in Québec, I visit the supermarkets to keep in touch with what is popular, and browse in bookstores for the latest in cookbooks and government publications. I also have contact with the Office de la langue française in Québec.

Computers have played an important role in my business. From the start I was convinced of the necessity of being "automated". My first word processor was programmed by my husband and the French accents would appear "like weird symbols" on my monitor. From this, we pioneered a new system. My equipment includes: personal computer, top of the line word processor, printer, and modem. I have recently added a FAX machine to my equipment which has increased the efficiency of my service: All the client has to do now is use the phone to send the copies.

I enjoy my work because it is directly related to food. Although I am working alone, I feel that I am part of a team. I am fortunate that many of my clients are fellow home economists who in turn refer me to new accounts. This is networking at its best. When not busy with translation, I test recipes, mainly for the Québec market, work on sensory evaluation projects or teach small children how to cook, "en français évidemment". □

Louise Boyer received a Baccalauréat en Sciences Domestiques from Univresité Laval in Québec and did her dietetic internship at St. Michael's Hospital in Toronto. She is currently free-lancing.

What do you say when …?

What do you say when asked about the transfer of substances into breast milk?

Jean Grudzinski

Lactating women are exposed to a variety of substances which may be transferred into breast milk. This article provides information on the transfer of certain food substances and their potential effect on the infant, as well as practical recommendations that can be provided to breastfeeding women.

Foods in the mother's diet. Some mothers report that certain strong flavored or gas producing foods in the diet upset their infants. Foods most commonly mentioned are garlic, onion, cabbage, turnips, broccoli, beans, rhubarb, tomatoes, chocolate, spices and condiments (Behrman & Vaughan, 1983). Concern about gassy foods has no scientific basis. Gas is not absorbed from the mother's gastrointestinal tract nor does it enter breast milk (Lawrence, 1985). The oils in garlic and some spices can alter the flavor of breast milk. Some infants may object to the flavor although it is not harmful.

Research has indicated that changes in the color of breast milk may be traced to large quantities of the color pigments in the mother's diet (Lawrence, 1985). Little factual information is available on which to base recommendations for nursing mothers. It is inappropriate to instruct all mothers to eliminate certain foods from their diets. Instead, it is suggested that mothers watch for a pattern of infant discomfort and see if it correlates with a specific food. It should be noted that it takes approximately 4-6 hours for components of specific foods to appear in breast milk. Avoidance of the suspected food for 3-4 days followed by a reintroduction should confirm or deny whether that particular food is responsible for the infant's discomfort. The infant's individual tolerance can vary and the amount of a particular food ingested by the mother should be considered. A wide variety of foods selected from *Canada's Food Guide* should be eaten daily.

Alcohol. Alcohol is transferred into breast milk to a level which approximates that in the mother's blood. Frequent and/or excessive intakes of alcohol may have adverse effects on the infant. Poor growth and a cushingoid appearance have been reported (Binkiewicz, Robinson, & Senior, 1978). Milk production may be suppressed in women who consume large quantities of alcohol due to the inhibition of the let down reflex. It is still not clear whether the effect is physiological or psychological. Safe levels of alcohol intake have not been established for nursing mothers.

Caffeine. Caffeine, present in coffee, tea, chocolate, and cola beverages as well as in a number of prescription and non-prescripton drugs, is transferred into breast milk (Tyrala & Dodson, 1979). Intakes of more than 6-8 cups of caffeine-containing beverages have been reported to cause irritability, nervousness, and wakefullness in some nursing infants (Worthington-Roberts, Vermeersch, & Williams, 1985). Excessive intakes of caffeine are not recommended for breastfeeding mothers. Reduction in caffeine consumption can be achieved by substituting caffeine-reduced or caffeine-free beverages. Recently an increase in the popularity of herbal teas has been noted. Often they are used by people who are interested in health foods or are trying to decrease their caffeine intake. Some herbal teas may, however, have medicinal effects when ingested. These active compounds may transfer into breastmilk and therefore may affect the infant (Lawrence, 1985). Caution is advised in the use of large quantities of herbal tea preparations.

Artificial sweeteners. Aspartame is a sweetener composed of two amino acids, aspartate and phenylalanine. The components/metabolites of aspartame are present in breast milk (Baker, 1984). Aspartame has been approved for use in a wide variety of food products. There is no evidence that moderate use of aspartame would present a concern for lactating women and their infants. Cyclamates and saccharin are available for table use only. They were removed from the list of approved food additives and are not permitted in manufactured foods in Canada.

Environmental contaminants. Environmental contaminants arising from industrial or agricultural products have been found in breast milk. There is little evidence of any harm to breastfed babies because of the presence of these substances (Worthington-Roberts et al., 1985; Rogan, Bagiviewska, & Damstra, 1980). The benefits of breastfeeding outweigh the risk posed by the presence of environmental contaminants except for individual females who are exposed to high levels of a specific contaminant. Simple precautions for breastfeeding mothers to follow include: •restricting the intake of wild game or fish from areas known to be contaminated; •avoiding exposure to pesticides; •thorough washing of fresh fruits and vegetables; and •avoiding excessive weight reduction which may mobilize the chemicals from maternal fat stores into maternal blood and breast milk. ☐

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Scollard, J.R. *The self-employed woman.* Spring, 94. Reviewed by S. Hiebert-Dell.

Storm, P. *Functions of dress — tool of culture and the individual.* Summer, 141. Reviewed by J. Menec.

CHEA Affairs

ACEF Congres de L'ACEF '87 [annonce]. Hiver, 2.

Awards 1988. Fall, IBC.

Bourses 1988. Automne, IBC.

Bourse Ruth Binnie, 1987 [annonce]. Eté, 152.

Call for manuscripts: Aging in Canada [Special research section — Summer 1988]. CHEJ. Spring, 91.

Call for papers [Research sessions — International Federation for Home Economics Conference]. Winter, 38; Spring, 98.

CHEA Board of Directors 1986-87. Winter, 4; Spring, 58; Summer, 106.

CHEA Board of Directors, 1987-88. Fall, 156.

CHEA Conference '87 [advertisement]. Winter, 2.

CHEJ. *Advertising rate card no. 18.* Fall, 170.

CHEJ. *Call for manuscripts: Aging in Canada* [Special research section — Summer 1988]. Spring, 91.

CHEJ. *Guide for authors.* Winter, 52-53.

CHEJ. *Submission deadlines.* Winter, 51.

CHEJ. *Themes for 1988.* Summer, 130.

CHEJ. *Wanted* [Cover designs and photographs]. Spring, 78.

Dates limites d'envoi des manuscrits. RCEF. Hiver, 51.

Elizabeth Feniak award for excellence in writing. Fall, 154.

Guide for authors. CHEJ. Winter, 52-53.

IFHE. *Call for papers* [Research sessions — International Federation for Home Economics Conference]. Winter, 38; Spring, 98.

RCEF. *Dates limites d'envoi des manuscrits.* Hiver, 51.

Ruth Binnie scholarship, 1987 [advertisement]. Summer, 152.

Submission deadlines. CHEJ. Winter, 51.

Themes for 1988. CHEJ. Summer, 130.

Wanted [Cover designs and photographs]. CHEJ. Spring, 78.

Writing competition winner announced. Fall, 154.

Awards Bourses 1988

The Canadian Home Economics Association announces the following awards to outstanding home economics students, for the 1988-1989 academic year.

L'Association canadienne d'économie familiale annonce, pour l'année universitaire 1988-1989, les bourses suivantes offertes à des étudiantes exceptionnelles en économie familiale.

Mary A. Clarke Memorial Scholarship — $3,000

This scholarship was established as a tribute to Mary Clarke, a valued member of the Canadian Home Economics Association, and President from 1952-1954.

For a graduate in Home Economics who is a Canadian citizen or a landed immigrant and who is undertaking graduate study proceeding to a higher degree. The award will be based on scholarship, personal qualities, past and/or potential contributions to the profession of Home Economics, and financial considerations.

Canadian Home Economics Association Scholarship Fund Award

Silver Jubilee Scholarship — $3,000

The Silver Jubilee Scholarship was established to commemorate the twenty-fifth anniversary of the founding of the Canadian Home Economics Association.

For a graduate in Home Economics who is a Canadian citizen or a landed immigrant and who is undertaking graduate study proceeding to a higher academic degree. The award will be based on scholarship, personal qualities, past and/or potential contributions to the profession of home economics, and financial considerations.

Canadian Home Economics Association Scholarship Fund Award

1985 Carnation Incentive Award — $750

For a graduate in Home Economics, who is a Canadian citizen or a landed immigrant and is undertaking graduate study proceeding to a higher degree. Special consideration will be given to a student undertaking post graduate study in foods. The award will be made on the basis of academic achievement, personal qualities, financial need and an intended career in the food industry.

Presented by the Carnation Company Limited

Robin Hood Multifoods Limited Award — $1,000

For a graduate in Home Economics who is a Canadian citizen or a landed immigrant and is undertaking graduate study leading to an advanced degree. The award will be based on academic achievement, personal qualities, past and/or potential contribution to the Home Economics profession. Preference will be given to the person planning a career in business, in the consumer service (foods) field or food service management.

Presented by Robin Hood Multifoods Limited

Bourse commémorative Mary A. Clarke — 3,000 $

Cette bourse a été créée en hommage à Mary Clarke, membre éminente de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale, et présidente de 1952 à 1954.

Elle s'adresse à une diplômée en économie familiale, citoyenne canadienne ou immigrante reçue, qui commence des études de second cycle en vue d'obtenir un diplôme supérieur. La bourse sera attribuée en fonction des résultats universitaires, des qualités personnelles, des contributions antérieures ou possibles à la profession et de la situation financière.

Bourse du Fonds des bourses d'études de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale

Bourse du vingt-cinquième anniversaire — 3 000 $

Cette bourse a été créée pour commémorer le vingt-cinquième anniversaire de la fondation de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale.

Elle s'adresse à une diplômée en économie familiale, citoyenne canadienne ou immigrante reçue, qui commence des études de second cycle en vue d'obtenir un diplôme supérieur. La bourse sera attribuée en fonction des résultats universitaires, des qualités personnelles, des contributions antérieures ou possibles à la profession et de la situation financière.

Bourse du Fonds des bourses d'études de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale

Bourse Carnation 1985 d'encouragement — 750 $

Destinée à une diplômée en économie familiale, citoyenne canadienne ou immigrante reçue, qui commence des études de second cycle en vue d'obtenir un diplôme supérieur. La préférence ira à une candidate dont les études sont orientées vers l'alimentation. La bourse sera attribuée en fonction des résultats académiques, des qualités personnelles, des besoins financiers et de l'intention de faire carrière dans l'industrie alimentaire.

Offerte par la Carnation Company Limited

Bourse Robin-Hood Multifoods Limited — 1 000 $

Destinée à une diplômée en économie familiale qui est citoyenne canadienne ou immigrante reçue et qui commence des études de second cycle en vue d'un diplôme supérieur. On attribuera la bourse en fonction des résultats académiques, des qualités personnelles, des contributions antérieures ou possibles à la profession. La préférence ira à une personne qui projette de faire carrière dans les affaires, les services aux consommateurs (alimentation) ou la gestion de services alimentaires.

Offerte par Robin Hood Multifoods Limited

To be eligible, applicants must be members of CHEA and the application must be **postmarked no later than January 16, 1988.** Previous CHEA scholarship winners are eligible to apply provided they continue to be enrolled in graduate study.

Application forms are available from:
Canadian Home Economics Association
901-151 Slater Street
Ottawa, ON K1P 5H3

Les candidates doivent être membres de l'ACEF. Pour être admissibles les demandes dûment remplies **doivent être envoyées au plus tard le 16 janvier 1988**, le cachet de la poste faisant foi. Les candidates ayant déjà bénéficié d'une bourse de l'ACEF sont éligibles à une bourse 1988 si elles pousuivent des études de second cycle.

Pour les formules de candidature, s'adresser à
L'Association canadienne d'économie familiale
151, rue Slater, suite 901
Ottawa, ON K1P 5H3